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THEIR ORIGIN, MEANING, AND APPLICATION.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 17, 1888.

The Week.

THE size of the majority by which the Copyright Bill has passed the Senate, warrants the belief that it will not encounter any serious difficulty in getting through the House. It is not, as has been often remarked, by any means the kind of bill which some of the earliest and most active friends of international copyright would like to see, but it has the immense and overwhelming merit of being an acknowledgment of the right of foreigners to the enjoyment of literary property on American soil. No matter how imperfect may be the protection which the law will give this species of property, the admission by our Government that it exists and ought to have some kind of protection, is still a very great gain. The gain, in fact, in this matter, as in all matters, must be measured rather by the difficulty which has been experienced in securing it than by the positive advantages it bestows. Anything which has cost a century of struggle is a considerable thing. To many people in this country it is very difficult to conceive of anything as property which the law does not recognize and protect as property. How often in the course of this discussion have we had to contend with the delusion that because a book can be stolen with impunity it may, therefore, be stolen without wrong. The present bill, therefore, inadequate as some may consider it, will have a very powerful educating influence. It will familiarize the country with the notion that a man may have a moral right to a thing, even if he have no legal right; and when this has been accomplished, the work of making the legal right fully commensurate with the moral right may safely be left to time and discussion.

The Chinese issue appears to be practically removed from our politics by the ratification in the Senate of the treaty establishing more rigorous rules against the admission of Mongolians to the United States. The vote in the Senate was all but unanimous, and the measure seems to be as sweeping as even the Pacific Coast could ask. The elimination of the Chinese issue is bad for Mr. Blaine, who has always outdone every other Republican candidate for the Presidency in demagogism on this question, while a settlement of the controversy satisfactory to the Pacific Coast is another illustration of "Cleveland's luck."

President Cleveland began vetoing improper private pension bills a few weeks ago, and now he is applying his negative to public-building bills which will not stand scrutiny. The first to encounter this fate is a measure proposing to appropriate $100,000 for the construction of a building at Allentown, Penn. The President shows that there is no necessity for such a building for any purpose connected with the public business, and that its erection would result in increased expense to the Government, since the annual rent now paid is only $1,300, while 3 per cent. interest upon the amount asked would be $3,000 a year, to which must be added the pay of a superintendent of construction while it is building, and the compensation of janitors and other expenses of its maintenance after it is done. Mr. Cleveland concludes with these excellent remarks on the general subject: "The plan now pursued for the erection of public buildings is in my opinion very objectionable. They are often built where they are not needed, of dimensions and at a cost entirely disproportionate to any public use to which they can be applied, and, as a consequence, they frequently serve more to demonstrate the activity and pertinacity of those who represent localities desiring this kind of decoration at public expense, than to meet any necessity of the Government."

One of the best features about the Presidential canvass which is just opening is the apparent assurance that it will be prosecuted without the disturbance to business which has characterized so many previous campaigns. The *Dry Goods Chronicle*, an intelligent trade paper, says that "all the conditions promise a fair year's trade"; that "business in all channels seems to be conducted on a very conservative basis;" and that there seems "no disturbing element likely to prevent a cheerful and prosperous business for the remainder of the year." The *Chronicle* attributes this in part to the fact that the more intelligent the people become the less they are influenced by politics, or the less a Presidential year is felt to be an off one; and it says that the chicanery and trickery of politicians, their hidden ways and dark means of exciting or disturbing the business interests of the country, are now pretty well understood, and are no longer very potent for ill. This is undoubtedly true as far as it goes, but there is another consideration which enters into the case this year. For the first time since the war there will be a campaign in which the "scare" argument plays no part—the argument, that is, that the country might be ruined if there were a change of administration. This argument has been very potent in the past, and has exerted a baleful influence upon business in a Presidential year, since many presumably intelligent men feared that the success of the Democrats might cause a financial convulsion. But the Democrats succeeded four years ago, and with business more prosperous now than it was then, it is doubtful if anybody will have the impudence to present the "scare" argument; and if anybody should be foolish enough to do so, it will produce no effect upon business men.

It is not worth while to consider seriously the reasons which Gov. Hill put forward in defence of his veto of the High License Bill. There is not an intelligent observer in the State who will claim for a moment that those reasons had any influence whatever in deciding the Governor's action. Everybody knew that he would simply weigh in his mind the question of whether he could gain more political advantage for himself by vetoing than by signing the bill. As he had small hope of gaining the confidence of the more orderly and respectable portions of the voters by anything he might do, he simply came to the conclusion that he would defy them, and risk all his political chances upon the brewing and other liquor interests of the State, hoping through that powerful influence to force his renomination upon the Democratic Convention, and trust to the strength of the President and the excitement of a Presidential election to carry him into office for another term. Meantime, he has received his first official notification from his party that they do not care for further service from him. It is useless for his friends to pretend that he was not a candidate for delegate-at-large to the National Convention, for it is notorious that he was. He was very anxious to go there at the head of the delegation in order to give the impression that while the Democratic party of New York State was for Cleveland for President, it was none the less a Hill party, and gave its allegiance to Cleveland through the graceful acquiescence of David Bennett Hill. It was an attempt to link the names of Cleveland and Hill together in the hope that they would remain united in the fall campaign in this State. The emphatic refusal of the party to accept the plan is pretty conclusive evidence that the Governor's chances for a renomination are no longer worth consideration.

The Ballot-Reform Bill passed the Senate on Thursday by the handsome vote of 20 to 8, and its fate now depends upon the Governor. There are very direct rumors that he said several days before that he would veto it if it ever reached him, but we shall hesitate to believe, until he does veto it, that his eagerness to capture the support of the worst elements in politics can carry him so far. The bill is not and never was a partisan measure. It was conceived and framed by men of all political faiths, including Democrats, Republicans, Independents, and Labor Reformers. The Democrats among them probably outnumbered the representatives of all other parties taken together, but they, like those other representatives, devoted themselves to the task in hand, not as partisans, but as public-spirited citizens. The bill which they framed has no other object than to make elections honest by taking the control of them out of the hands of political heelers and strikers. If the Governor sees fit to veto it, his action will be only another sign that he thinks the support of the dishonest, disreputable, and tricky element of the Democratic party

more powerful than the honest and respectable elements. There is not a newspaper in the Democratic party of this city or State, which has any standing outside of gambling dens and liquor-saloons, that has not commended this bill and urged its passage. They ought to warn the Governor now that he will not merely injure himself but his party by coming out as the champion of dishonest elections, in addition to his record as champion of unrestricted rum-selling and political jobbery.

The situation in which the State prisons have been left by the failure of the Legislature to appropriate money for the employment and maintenance of the inmates is simply barbarous. As all the earnings of the prisons are paid into the State Treasury, and cannot be got out without an appropriation, the grotesque spectacle is presented of 3,500 convicts working at productive employments and earning money for the State which cannot be employed even to pay for their own bread, the State simultaneously refusing to supply any other funds for that purpose. It follows that unless the Governor calls an extra session, the prison doors must be opened when the present supplies run out, so that the convicts can get something to eat. If those members of the Legislature, including young Mr. Hamilton, who voted against the appropriation, could be shut up in their places for a while, the change would be an appropriate one. As for Mr. Yates of Schenectady, the proper place for him is a county insane asylum. That the Governor will have to call an extra session is evident. Fortunately, no subject can be acted on in extra session except that which he recommends for consideration.

Prof. H. C. Adams contributes an article to *America* (the new Chicago weekly), on the surplus question, holding that wise statesmanship requires that both the internal revenue and the tariff systems be preserved as the permanent framework of our fiscal policy. The reason advanced for this plan is that we ought always to be ready for an emergency, and never again be caught napping as we were when the civil war broke out. We ought to have revenue machinery in actual use and practical operation which is capable of yielding large sums by merely increasing the rates of taxation. It has been shown by experiment that the tariff is insufficient for great emergencies. It has been equally shown that the building up of an internal-revenue system *de novo* is a slow process. This system did not get into the best working order until the war was nearly ended. It did not produce its best results until the year 1866. It is now demonstrably clear that if the internal-revenue system had been in existence before the war, and if the spirit had possessed our rulers to "work it for all it was worth," the whole cost of the war might have been defrayed without incurring a dollar of debt. These are cogent and overwhelming reasons for *not* adopting the Randall-Kelley programme of abolishing the internal-revenue system. Prof. Adams closes his article with a temperate argument in favor of the repeal of duties on all articles "which, by a liberal interpretation, can be classed as raw material," together with a corresponding reduction on manufactured goods into which these raw materials enter. In fact, Prof. Adams seems to agree in principle with the President's message and with the Mills bill in the main, although the latter does continue the tax on some raw materials of an important character.

The New Orleans *Times-Democrat* asks, in view of the Adams-Martin tragedy at Jackson, whether "it is not time to call a halt" "in the matter of fighting with deadly weapons in the public streets" at the South? We think it is. There is no other community as highly civilized as the Southern States, which now treats the world to the spectacle of combats with knives and firearms in the public highway between respectable men, filling responsible positions in society. This last affair was made horribly grotesque by the fact that one of the combatants was an old man of seventy, the other a youngster of twenty-five. But "calling a halt" every now and then when a more than usually atrocious affray has taken place, will not mend matters. The Southern press has done this many a time already without much effect. The cure must begin much further back. Southern boys must be taught from their cradles the sacredness of human life, the shame of carrying deadly weapons in a free State in the nineteenth century, and the folly as well as barbarism of avenging libels and slanders by public murder. If in this last affair Adams, the old man, had prosecuted criminally or sued civilly the young journalistic "squirt" who, after the manner of his kind, was calling him names and making charges against him, he would not only have applied the only effective balm to his wounded honor, but have given the whole State a lesson in civilization which it apparently greatly needs.

The retirement of President Barnard of Columbia College from the active work of an educator, although plainly presaged by the clock of time, has come upon the community at last as an unwelcome surprise. We leave to his brethren in the noble profession in which he has been so long eminent, the duty of recounting in proper terms and at the proper time the particular services that he has rendered to the upbuilding of a university in New York worthy of the city and of the illustrious men who have preceded him, and of those who have graduated from its walls. During his long service, both here and elsewhere, President Barnard has set the example of citizenship before his pupils and his faculty as the end and aim of teaching and the fruition of college life, discharging the duties of the citizen that came to his hand with a sense of modest responsibility, and in all cases with marked advantage to the community. Thoroughly trained in the arts and sciences which make for human progress, and wholly devoid of self-seeking, he has neither withheld any service that he could render beyond the sphere of his profession nor sought any distinction outside of it. He has been preëminently the man teaching as distinguished from the mere teacher, and he has impressed the trait of citizenship upon all who have come within the range of his influence. Although advancing years have compelled him to deliver the laboring oar to younger hands, it is gratifying to know that his intellect remains unclouded, and gives the hope of still further service to the commonwealth. In common with all his fellow-citizens we join in wishing him the reward he has richly earned of a serene retirement, graced with the memories and friendships of a long life in which no time has been wasted or ill-spent.

The Pope's rescript on the Irish question is being speedily explained away. It is confessedly not an *ex-cathedra* utterance, because it is not addressed to the whole world, but only to the Irish, and he is not infallible except when he speaks *ex cathedra*. On other occasions he may make mistakes like anybody else. Moreover, in the present case, he does not speak himself at all; he simply adopts an opinion drafted by one "Congregation," or committee of prelates, who, it is admitted, may have been incorrectly informed about the facts. Then the Irish bishops have still to sit upon the rescript, or, in other words, to interpret it to the Irish people, and, judging from Archbishop Walsh's recent letter in one of the Dublin papers, they are not likely to interpret it in a way that will bear hard on the tenants. It is directed almost wholly against the plan of campaign and boycotting, and it will probably now be said that if the Pope had had the whole situation put fully and accurately before him, he would not have taken such a dark view of the matter. In short, it is apparently not likely to exert much, if any, influence on Irish matters. Parnell gets out of expressing an opinion on it by saying that it would be hardly delicate for a Protestant to do so.

Nothing is more striking in Mr. Gladstone's career than the fidelity with which the Nonconformists, or, in other words, the bone and sinew of the English middle class, have stuck to him in good and evil fortune during the last twenty years. The address from 3,700 ministers of various denominations, which he received on Wednesday week, approving his course in the Home Rule question, is a kind of testimonial which no other public man in England has ever received, and is almost the one sign which never fails of the way the tide would run if a general election were now held. No minister who has the Nonconformists at his back remains long out of power in England. It was their lukewarmness over the education question and some other matters which drove the Liberals from power in 1874, but then it was the Nonconformists' horror of Disraeli's wars, of his sneers over the Bulgarian atrocities, of Salisbury's falsehood and tergiversation, which brought

them back with such a magnificent rush in 1880. That the policy of the Government in Ireland is profoundly distasteful to the great body of English dissenters, there is hardly a doubt, for they have taken every possible means of showing it, and it is their full knowledge of this fact which makes the talk of dissolution so odious to Unionists.

One, and perhaps the chief, reason why the alarm raised by Lord Wolseley and others in England does not produce much impression, and is pooh-poohed by the Ministers, is that it is a periodical alarm. It comes with almost the regularity of commercial panics, and is generally coincident with the promise or the close of some great disturbance on the European continent. The Duke of Wellington made one terrible alarm—probably the greatest there has been since Napoleon had his camp and flotilla at Boulogne—in 1851, after the French *Coup d'État*. There was another very serious one after the Franco-German war, when the 'Battle of Dorking' was written, depicting the horrors of a German march on London, after the defeat of the regular troops and the flight of the volunteers. There would have been one after the war of the rebellion in this country, if the United States had been nearer to England, because many of the highest military authorities, to say nothing of the politicians in England, held that it was perfectly certain that the Federal Government would not dare to disband the army: that it would have to be maintained, and work found for it; and the work, it was held, would probably be the invasion of Canada. If England had not been so far off, it would have been the invasion of England. The probable cause of the present outbreak is the rise of Boulanger in France, who, the alarmists maintain, will, as soon as he gets into power, attack England. It is almost as useless to argue with them as it was to argue with the people here who were fixed in their belief that "the Democrats" would pay the rebel debt and destroy the Government if they secured the Presidency. The ordinary principles of human nature count for nothing in these discussions.

It would probably be unfair to suppose that Lord Wolseley and the other military men who are managing "the scare" are at all insincere in their belief about the danger. No man spends his life under arms, and constantly preparing himself for war, without coming to believe that somebody is going to attack him before long, and without getting into a state of greater or less eagerness for fighting. This is one of the most familiar characteristics of the military mind. In addition to this, however, in England professional soldiers are constantly mortified by the smallness of their force as compared with the great Continental armies, and with the humble and henpecked position in which the army is kept by the civil power. On the Continent, for instance, a civilian minister of war would be looked on as a monstrosity and a great humiliation for the army. They have one in France at this moment, for the first time, we believe, since the Revolution, and it is exciting ineffable disgust among the troops, and supplying Boulanger with some of his capital. But in England nothing else is ever thought of, and he holds the purse-strings, and when the soldiers clamor for more men and horses and guns, he calmly tells them they cannot have them. The only way they can make any head against him is by getting up every now and then an "invasion panic." It will not do to get it up often, because the public would refuse to go into one scare while the remembrance of the last one was very vivid. But, every twenty years or so, there is a generation on the scene which does not recall the fact that during the last panic the enemy never appeared, and its help may generally be counted on to raise the dust of war. One commander of volunteers in London is reported to be so excited at present that he has refused all leaves of absence to officers, and ordered the trumpeters to practise their "calls" daily. It may be that he even sleeps in his clothes.

One of the now somewhat frequent club cases has just come before the English courts. A member of the Randolph Churchill Conservative Club received a notice from the Club Secretary, requesting him to appear before the Committee on a certain day to refute the charge of being "an offending member," and warning him that if he failed to do so, he would be expelled. He answered that he would appear when he was informed what the charge was, and who made it, but not sooner; whereupon the Committee expelled him. Nothing daunted, he went to the club-house as usual and ordered refreshments, but the Steward was directed not to serve him. He then applied for an injunction to restrain them, and they finally rescinded their resolution, and the Committee was condemned to pay the costs of the proceedings. The Court was very severe on the Committee. Mr. Justice Kay said:

> "It was quite true that the Court did not interfere with the internal matters of a society like a club; but there was a broad exception to that rule—namely, that when those matters were so conducted as to be contrary to every man's notion of what was just, then the Court would interfere, especially in the case of the expulsion of a member."

Considering how many of these club troubles have come before the courts, and how particular the courts are in exacting absolute correctness of procedure in club trials, it is extraordinary with what looseness committees every now and then pursue "offending members." As Judge Kay remarked in this case, expulsion from a club "is not a small matter. It is a stigma on a man's character and position, and one from the effects of which but few men would recover. It was a most serious matter and might be social ruin to a man." The explanation of the carelessness of committees is probably to be found in the fact that in the earlier days of clubs, when clubs were smaller and fewer than they are now, "offending members" never thought of offering any resistance. Tried or untried, if the Committee told them to go they went, and hid their diminished heads. But nowadays club men, like everybody else, think a great deal about their "rights," and defend them to the last extremity.

Both Chambers of the Brazilian Parliament, whose session began on May 3, have promptly united in a measure for abolishing slavery without delay; and though particulars are still wanting, the event means that the present year will witness the extinction of human bondage on the whole American continent. Five years ago the leading abolitionists of Brazil could see no hope of such a speedy consummation, and as lately as 1885 the Cotegipe Cabinet came into power as the consequence of a pro-slavery reaction, with a heavy majority in the lower house. This majority remained firm throughout the last session, but it was well known that a change was being silently wrought in it, and the Conservative schism was fully developed when the anti-slavery wing got the upper hand and brought in a new Administration under the lead of Senhor João Alfredo, with Senhor Prado as his right-hand man. The result is a dishing of the Liberals, whose patriotism, however like that of the corresponding British party, is superior to jealousy. Meanwhile, in confirmation of the action of the Brazilian bishops, who issued pastorals recommending emancipation as the fittest way of celebrating his jubilee, the Pope has issued an encyclical which does him honor, and the perhaps dying hours of Dom Pedro in Italy are reported to be cheered by the news of the act of Parliament removing the curse and disgrace of the great Catholic empire.

The American people are too busy to give proper thought to what is going on in Brazil, yet emancipation there is undeniably a glorious product of our war for freedom which ended in 1865. Within two years from that date the first abolition measure was adopted, to be followed by the law of 1871, which made freemen of all the future offspring of slaves, and provided an emancipation fund for annual ransoming. But this gradual process was a senseless sacrifice of the higher interests and good name of the country to a class, and proved intolerable, as must needs be, considering the anomaly of the States maintaining two opposite principles at the same time—sanctioning all the barbarity of slavery while setting a stigma upon it and buying it off. A new era now opens from which we must expect at once only negatively good results, for the mass of ignorance and degradation in the colored race is enormous. The difference otherwise between the situation in Brazil and that of the South in reconstruction days is, that color is no bar to public preferment in the empire. Industrial friction may occur, but the race question, properly speaking, is eliminated. For this, doubtless, the fusing power of Catholicism is to be thanked, though it is almost the only service which the Church has rendered to emancipation.

"POLITICAL PRUDERY."

THE Washington *Post*, which is a strong supporter and admirer of President Cleveland's Administration, says truly:

"The Tariff Bill now pending in the House of Representatives might just as properly be called the Cleveland bill as the Mills bill. It is the response of the Democratic House, through the majority of the Ways and Means Committee, to the urgent demand of the Democratic President for a Democratic reduction of redundant revenues and needless taxation. It is therefore the Democratic party's bill, and no man calling himself a Democrat has a right to work for its defeat or decline to support it."

It then goes on to propose, as a deduction from this, that the President should cast aside what it calls "political prudery," and use his patronage to whip members of Congress into support of the bill. In other words, he is to inform those members of Congress who fail to support it, or support it hesitatingly, that unless they change their ways they "need expect no more favors from him," as "Fatty" Walsh said to the lawyer who refused to submit to his extortions. The slang way of expressing this idea is that the Democratic party "least of all things can afford to have the Democratic Administration feeding at the public crib men who work in the vineyard of the enemy." The proposal, translated into plain English, simply means that the President should offer to put places in the public service at the disposal of Congressmen in exchange for votes in favor of the Mills Tariff Bill, and should refuse such places to Congressmen who decline to vote for the bill.

Of the solemn pledges given by the President not to use his patronage in this way—pledges which are all summed up in his famous saying, "Public office is a public trust"—we shall not now speak. We will even go so far as to admit, for the sake of the present argument, that there is nothing wrong in using the public offices as "spoils," and dividing them at the advent of each new Administration among the "workers" who have contributed to the victory, or even using them as a means of packing conventions and thus securing particular nominations or renominations. We shall confine ourselves to pointing out that the offer of patronage to members of Congress, in order to secure votes for a particular measure, is simply a form of bribery, which, if it differs at all from the offer of hard cash—which was Sir Robert Walpole's plan — differs for the worse, inasmuch as the cash might be the briber's own to do what he pleased with, while the offices cannot be his own under any conceivable circumstances. If a private individual, interested in a bill before Congress because it embodied his views on a great public question, were to go to a member of either house, and offer him the control or disposal of a salaried place, as an inducement to vote for the bill, he would expose himself to conviction, fine, and imprisonment under section 5450 of the United States Revised Statutes, which reads as follows:

Sec. 5450. Every person who promises, offers, gives, or causes or procures to be promised, offered, or given, any money or *other thing of value*, or makes or tenders any contract, undertaking, obligation, gratuity, or security for the payment of money, or for the delivery or conveyance of *anything of value*, to any member of either house of Congress, either before or after such member has been qualified or has taken his seat, with *intent to influence his vote or decision on any question, matter, cause, or proceeding* which may be at any time pending in either house of Congress, or before any committee thereof, shall be fined not more than three times the amount of money or value of the thing so offered, promised, given, made, or tendered, or caused, or procured to be so offered, promised, given, made, or tendered, and shall be, moreover, imprisoned not more than three years.

How would such an offer from the President differ from such an offer by a private citizen? In no way whatever. It would be an indictable offence in either case. How comes it, then, that respectable men, editors, politicians, lawyers, calmly propose such things to the President? How is it that one constantly hears the failure or refusal of the President to use his patronage in this criminal way to promote or to defeat legislation treated as a sign of weakness or incompetency? The reason is simply that the public perception of the guilt and danger of the arrangement has been blunted by long usage. The spoils system has, in fact, not simply deepened the corruption of the baser sort, but has perverted the understanding of many of the best men. They declaim freely against bribery practised by the Ameses and Sharps and Tweeds, but in the very next breath urge the Federal Executive to practise precisely the same wholesale debauchery of the Legislature, by offering salaries in the public service to members to induce them to suppress their private judgment and violate their oaths, and seek only to please him by their votes.

We are interested as much as any one can be in seeing President Cleveland's views on the tariff embodied in legislation. We think the tariff, as it stands at present, a crying evil. But one of the very worst things about it is the power it gives Congressmen to bestow enormous pecuniary favors on individuals by raising duties, and to threaten individuals with heavy loss by lowering duties. No country in the world has yet produced legislators with virtue enough to withstand the temptations created by such a state of things as this. It corrupts the heart and perverts the judgment of everybody who comes in contact with it, and must continue to do so as long as human nature is what it is to-day. But bad as this source of corruption is, we do not care to see it dried up by deepening another and a worse one—for an Executive practising habitual, public, and acknowledged bribery on legislators is a worse one. No Government can stand such a system for any great length of time. Every régime which has long relied on it has gone down, sometimes in flame and blood. England tried it in the eighteenth century, and was only saved by the shock of the American war. France is trying it to-day again, in spite of the memories of the old monarchy, under which the King kept an open market for the sale of the public offices; and we shall very likely see the Third Republic perish under it.

President Cleveland undoubtedly owed his election to the fact that he was believed to be a man who would try to arrest our progress on this downward road in this country. In other words, he was elected not as a tariff reformer, but as a civil-service reformer. His enemies tried to prevent his election by maintaining that he would alter the tariff; his friends retorted that he had no power to do anything of the sort. He is not the man to say now, or permit any one to say for him, that what his friends meant was that he could not legitimately alter the tariff, but that he was at full liberty to alter it illegitimately as much as he pleased. His message on the tariff was a manly appeal to the intelligence of free and honest men in and out of Congress. As such it has produced an extraordinary effect upon the popular mind. We see no sign whatever that its influence is diminishing. On the contrary, we believe the popular respect both for the sincerity and perspicacity of its author grows daily. But that respect would not long survive the general belief that he had enforced his arguments with cash or its equivalent, and had relieved us of a portion of our burden of taxation by offering to the world one of the most woful and disheartening examples of tergiversation to be found in political history.

THE LESSON OF THE PACIFIC RAILROAD REPORTS.

IN all the early work of the Massachusetts Railroad Commission, Mr. C. F. Adams was guided by the idea that the permanent interests of the investors in the long run closely agreed with those of the public at large. By protecting those permanent interests of the property from temporary abuse or mismanagement, the interests of the community were protected also. The success of the Commission furnished the best proof of the soundness of this idea.

As President of the Union, Pacific, Mr. Adams represents the same principle, and urges it upon the attention of Congress no less vigorously than he did upon the Massachusetts authorities fifteen years ago. In his arguments concerning the adjustment of the debt of the railroads to the Government, his strongest point is made in connection with this idea. The Union Pacific, he says, is now owned by investors, and managed for their interests. As long as this is so, the Government has the assurance that the property will be kept in good condition, and will furnish all possible security for the claims against it. If, however, the Government, by a short-sighted policy, should throw the road into the hands of speculators whose interest it is not to preserve it, but to make all they can out of it for the time being, more will be lost in a few years than can be recovered in a lifetime. It is because Mr. Adams is working for the permanent interests of the property-holders, and not for mere annual returns, that the United States has a fair prospect of adjusting its relations with the Union Pacific in a satisfactory manner.

The real state of the case is most strongly brought out when we read the report of the Central Pacific, which has just been issued,

and contrast it with that of the Union Pacific. Mr. Crocker's arguments are no less vigorous than those of Mr. Adams, and are equally conclusive in their way. But they deal with the whole matter from a different standpoint. While Mr. Adams is asking, "What course will best secure the permanent interests of the investors?" Mr. Crocker's question simply is, "What are the specific rights of the parties in the case to-day?" The latter question is much easier to answer than the former; but Mr. Crocker's method of answering it sacrifices the interests of the Government to-day, and those of the stockholders for years hence. It is this which constitutes one of the chief difficulties in dealing with the case of the Central Pacific. The road is in the hands of men who have transferred a large part of their holdings to a rival line. The conditions are such that they are still interested in the temporary returns from the Central Pacific, but have by no means a corresponding interest in its permanent value. Thus situated, they can afford to ask the Government, "What are you going to do about it?" They can disregard the wants of the Government because they consider the temporary rather than the permanent wants of the railroad. Mr. Adams pursues the opposite course, and in so doing he is bound to help the Government rather than to thwart it. It may prove impossible to collect the whole value of the debt in any case. The Union Pacific Road was long managed for temporary interests instead of permanent ones, and its permanent power was somewhat weakened. But the tendency of the present management undoubtedly is to give the Government a chance of collecting more than it would be likely to get under any other system.

This conflict of interests is made unnaturally sharp in the case of the Pacific railroads by the peculiar conditions of the subsidy bonds. The interest charges are all the time accumulating, but the Government cannot foreclose till 1897. Up to that time the officers of the companies can, within certain limits, do what they please with their earnings; after that the Government claims will have so accumulated that, unless some funding arrangement is made, they will completely swamp the stock, and render it alike powerless and valueless. With a short-sighted policy on both sides, the Government might insist on its full claims and technical rights, but meantime the management could pocket a large part of what was valuable before those claims or rights could be enforced, and leave the property so depleted as to be of little value.

What is clearly seen in this case really happens in a large number of other cases where it is not so obvious. If a railroad manager is so situated that his object is simply to have a large current income at his disposal, he can often best secure this by high rates for local traffic, by postponing repairs which must sooner or later become necessary, or by borrowing money to pay for current expenses and charging the whole to capital account. In any of these events the permanent interests of the property will suffer; but if his connection with it is only temporary, he cares comparatively little for that. If, on the other hand, he is considering the future as well as the present, he will build up the local business of his railroad, even by rates which may seem to involve a slight loss for the moment; he will make such repairs as are necessary to keep the road in first-class condition, and will have no inducement to charge them to an account to which they do not belong. By such a course the public interest is protected, by any other it is sacrificed.

The case of the Pacific railroads has its widest importance as furnishing one more illustration of the ways in which the interests of the investor coincide with those of the public. As a mere matter of financial outlook, the efforts of Mr. Adams for the security of the property-holders promise better for the Government than any of the schemes of those who look at the matter from a purely political standpoint. If this is true in questions of finance, there is every reason to suppose that the same thing will be true in the broader questions of rates and facilities. The advocates of State railroad management fail to see that, under any system of government which we are likely to have, the aims of the authorities are pretty certain to be short-sighted. To make as good a showing as possible when in power, and to leave matters in uncomfortable shape for one's successor on going out of power—such is the combination of principles which confronts a national administration. Even if there were little or no corruption in State railroad management, there would be an almost irresistible temptation to doctor the accounts in such a way as to give the existing administration as much as possible of the disposable receipts, and saddle the expenses upon its successor—to give lower rates or to build new lines, not so much with regard to the wants of trade as to political capital. We do not need to go further into this aspect of the subject. It is enough to contrast the effects of management for the future, as represented by the Union Pacific, with that of management for the present only, as exemplified on so many other roads; and then to ask which of these methods is likely to be encouraged by a further infusion of politics into railroad administration.

THE SENATE AND THE TREATY.

THE report of the Senate Committee on the Fisheries Treaty takes three positions which are new to the history and policy of the country, and which accordingly ought to arrest the attention of every thoughtful citizen. The first is, that the President had no right to appoint plenipotentiaries to negotiate a treaty while Congress was in session, without first asking the advice and consent of the Senate and communicating the names of the negotiators to that body. It is not insisted in express terms that such proceeding on the part of the Executive is unconstitutional, but that it is unwise and fraught with grave dangers. "It is not difficult to see," says the report, "that, in evil times, when the President of the United States may be under the influence of foreign and adverse interests, such a course of procedure might result in great disaster to the interests and even the safety of our Government and people." The minority of the Committee enumerate 423 appointments of negotiators to frame treaties and conventions with foreign governments without the concurrence and advice of the Senate or the express authority of Congress, as against thirty-five appointed with such advice and consent. A considerable number of the former class of appointments were made while the Senate was in session, but it does not appear that the President's right to make appointments in this way was ever before called in question. Perhaps it never happened before that such appointments were made "in evil times," or by a President who was "under the influence of foreign and adverse interests."

The second novelty discovered by the Committee is that the fishery dispute is not a fit subject for negotiation at all. This conclusion, the gravity of which cannot be overestimated, is stated in these words: "In view of the plain history of these transactions, and of the matters hereinbefore stated, *it does not seem to the Committee that the existing matters of difficulty are subjects for treaty negotiation.*" The matters hereinbefore stated are principally negotiations extending over a period of more than a century. It is easy to say, if the Committee are so minded, that these negotiations have at last got in such shape that no further negotiation is necessary, but to say that the fishery question is not a fit *subject* for treaty negotiation is simply to affirm that we are superior to the rules that govern civilized nations. We may be so convinced of the uselessness of further negotiation that we may elect to take the consequences, or, as the Committee say in another place, "decline at whatever cost to enter into new engagements with the British Government." We may do so under a conviction that justice cannot be secured by further negotiations, but the Committee go much further when they say that the existing matters of difficulty are not even the subjects of negotiation. Such a position puts the United States distinctly outside the pale of civilized nations, since civilization now, and ever since the predatory period, has recognized the equal rights of nations to their opinions of their own case in all matters of difficulty whatsoever. The peace of the world rests squarely on the recognition of such equal rights, and the mutual acknowledgment that the claims on one side are as good as those on the other *prima facie* and without exception. If the Senate Committee's position is to be taken by the United States, it follows that arbitration should also be rejected, because arbitration requires preliminary treaty negotiation.

In fact, the third position taken by the Committee excludes arbitration as well as treaty. It simply affirms the duty of the President to put in force the Retaliation Act of March 3, 1887. This act requires the President to make up his mind, upon any state of facts that may arise, whether American fishing vessels have been

unjustly treated in British-American ports, and if he thinks that they have been so treated, it authorizes him "in his discretion" to issue a proclamation closing our ports to British-American vessels, or to prohibit the importation of fish from Canada, or both. The fishermen indicated to the President a year ago that the prohibition of Canadian fish was what they wanted under the Retaliation Act. Since the whole fishery dispute arises from the duty on cod and mackerel, and would never have existed otherwise, we may infer that the Senate Committee would be satisfied if the President would search his own heart and find just sufficient evidence of Canadian injustice to give a monopoly of the fish market to the Gloucester smack owners, but not enough to bar out Canadian lumber vessels. They see no danger in the exercise of such a power, while alarmed at the negotiation of a treaty open to rejection by the Senate.

TREASURY METHODS.

MR. FAIRCHILD has acted very wisely in appointing a committee of Treasury officials to inquire into the methods now in vogue in his Department, and to suggest means whereby they may be simplified. The select Committee of the Senate, known as the "Cockrell Committee," have paved the way for this new Committee, by publishing the result of their investigations, showing in detail all the processes of the intricate machinery at work in the various bureaus and divisions of the Treasury. Instead of preparing himself to resist the changes which are likely to be proposed by the Senate Committee, Mr. Fairchild, it seems, purposes to anticipate them, and, as he has selected for his Committee young men who are not wedded to any existing customs, it is also manifest that he wishes as complete a revolution in the system of public accounting as may safely be made. Mr. Fairchild's chief desire, it is said, is to be relieved himself of unnecessary or unimportant work. Few people understand how arduous are the manual labors even of the head of the Treasury Department. He and one of his assistants are kept engaged during a great portion of each day in issuing warrants, either for the setting apart of moneys into the various funds provided by law, or for the payment of money into the Treasury, or for its disbursement. Under a plan instituted by Hamilton, and upon which he added himself, the Treasurer can neither pay out nor receive into the Treasury any money, unless he has an order from the Secretary commanding it, which order must be countersigned by the Comptroller and recorded by the Register.

The public business has so greatly increased since Hamilton's day as to make it impossible for the Secretary to inquire into the merits of any case, when these warrants, which are prepared by subordinates, are presented to him for his signature; and the work, therefore, is, and for many years has been, purely mechanical. Money is paid out of the Treasury in two ways. It is either *advanced* to a disbursing officer upon a requisition, drawn by him or by his superior officer, approved by the various officials who have to do with his accounts, or it is paid upon a *settlement* of the accounting officers, who certify the amount to be due to the person in question, and request the necessary warrant to issue. In the first case the Secretary draws the warrant without question, relying upon the safeguards and checks which are indicated upon the requisition. In the second case he merely carries out *pro formâ* the recommendation of the Auditor or Comptroller, who alone knows, and who alone can know, of the propriety of the payment.

Now, the point which it is desired to make here is, that in all cases the responsibility of the payment does not rest with the Secretary, and that his time is too precious to be consumed in carrying out in a mechanical way the virtual orders of those who are acquainted with the true condition of affairs, and who are punished for any carelessness or fraud in presenting it to him. Hamilton regarded the Comptroller and himself jointly liable for an improper payment. In this day a Secretary could not be considered responsible at all, as it is out of the question for him to stop to inquire concerning anything but the presence of certain signatures and initials on the paper before him.

In view of what has just been mentioned, the plan suggested by Mr. Washington, at one time Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, is worthy of Mr. Fairchild's attention. He advocated the disbursement of money by the Treasurer upon a warrant issued by the head of the department under whose control the fund in question might come. In other words, he insisted that as the Secretary of the Treasury could seldom, if ever, properly resist the requests of other heads of departments for the issuance of warrants, and as they, not he, were actually, and indeed should be, held responsible for the propriety of payments which they had requested to be made, these requests should be directed by them immediately, and not mediately, to the Treasurer.

This would be a great and judicious lessening of the labors of the Secretary of the Treasury, and there is no reason to think that any laws of prudence would be violated by thus omitting the supposed safeguards of the Secretary's signature, the Comptroller's counter-signature, and the Register's certificate of registry. The Treasurer would be required to pay money upon the order direct to him of the head of any department, but it could be agreed that this order should be certified by the proper auditor and comptroller who might handle the account upon which it is drawn. Concerning moneys paid upon settlements, it is plain that the Comptroller who certifies the balance, should be allowed to draw his warrant on the Treasurer direct, instead of requesting the Secretary, who never saw the account or any of its vouchers, to join with him in this order.

THE PRESBYTERIAN CENTENNIAL.

A DEEPER significance than was perhaps intended may be seen in the choice by the Presbyterians of the United States of the one hundredth General Assembly of their Church as the occasion for their most conspicuous centennial celebration. Of course, the Philadelphia Assembly of a century ago was far from marking the introduction of Presbyterian belief or the Presbyterian polity into this country. Presbyterian beginnings here can be traced much more than a hundred years back of that gathering. Very early in the history of the Carolinas and Virginia, as also of New York and parts of New England, emigrants from Scotland, the north of Ireland, and from Holland, brought in Presbyterian elements to be slowly disentangled from the religious complexity of the times. It is not, then, the establishment of either Presbyterian doctrines or presbyterially governed churches that the Presbyterians of the nation glorify and commemorate this month at Philadelphia. It is, rather, the rounding out of their ecclesiastical system in this country—the last step which had to be taken to make their polity symmetrical and complete, the perfection of their church machinery—which is the great thing behind this Presbyterian centennial. The salient fact is that a hundred years ago Presbyterianism became essentially the machine it is to-day—always speaking of the polity—for a firm ecclesiastical rule under a representative form of government and with parity of the clergy.

That this description of what took place a century ago is correct is witnessed by the fact that the consolidating and centralizing movement which issued in the General Assembly was opposed, and, for a time, almost rebelled against, by some who dreaded ecclesiastical tyranny. They had enjoyed the freedom and independence of separate synods, and were not anxious to submit themselves to what might turn out to be, under the guise of a national system, a scheme for ecclesiastical domination. That their fears have proved to be, in some respects, well founded, the subsequent history of the Presbyterian Church amply shows. The most important matter all along has been the control of the church courts. Everything else has been subordinated to this by those bent on moulding the Presbyterian Church—as well it might be; for what was the use of arguing about creed and subscription, about temperance or slavery, when possession of the ecclesiastical machine could end all argument? We do not mean to say that there has been no zeal on pure questions of doctrine or morals, but simply that there has been no such zeal as there would have been had not the short and easy way of voting down opponents who could not be reasoned down, been made so ready of application in the Presbyterian system. When a minority has been too strong to be extinguished, the result has been a schism, so that each party might have its own smoothly running machine—as was the case in the division into the New-School and Old-School branches a half-century ago.

Indeed, when we state that the most distinctive thing about Presbyterianism of to-day is its compact polity and vigorous ecclesiastical control, we are not alone saying

that it has pursued its normal development since the General Assembly of 1788, but are simply accepting the words of its most ardent living admirers and exponents. How often have we been told, as, for example, recently by the Chicago *Interior*, that the Presbyterian Church is not afraid of liberalism, because it has shotted guns, in the shape of its form of government, ready to train upon the first liberal who dares to show his head. This is undoubtedly correct, and the only way the situation can be changed is by the gradual enlargement of the younger and liberal element, which is doing a good deal of thinking, though it does keep wonderfully still about it, until the ecclesiastical management falls into its hands. It is a curious thing to find it recently charged that fear of such a consummation is a powerful motive back of the movement for union with the Southern Church. The hope is, so a prominent Presbyterian alleges, to swamp and discourage the Northern liberals by taking in the ultra-conservatives of the South. However that may be, it is already clear that the proposed union is not yet to take place.

It is worth noting that this rigid system of church control, which is so highly characteristic of Presbyterianism, is directed more against opinion—at any rate the expression of opinion—than practice, and, moreover, presses with any weight only upon the clergy and officers of the Church. It is true that a great show of careful oversight of the morals of the laity is kept up. The records of the assemblies are lumbered up with long and solemn deliverances on all moot questions of morals; but there is little pretence, any longer, of enforcing them. Thus, for example, scarce an assembly for the past ten years has failed to condemn the Sunday newspaper, and warn Presbyterians against having anything to do with it; yet Presbyterians openly buy, read, advertise in, own, publish, and edit Sunday newspapers, and the idea of resorting to church discipline, in such cases, appears never to have been thought of. Much the same fate has befallen the strong Presbyterian laws against theatre-going and dancing. In the country they are sometimes enforced: in the city—well, there are obvious difficulties in the city.

It needs but a slight study of Presbyterianism to reveal its marked adaptation to institutions like our own. In a striking way, it parallels our public system of local home rule, under the direction of higher representative bodies. The recent change in the Presbyterian organic law by which the synods are now made practically conterminous with the different States, makes the likeness between Presbyterian government by Session, Presbytery, Synod, and General Assembly still more close to our civil government through town, county, State, and nation. This ready fitting of the Presbyterian system to the forms of our republican institutions has undoubtedly been one of the sources of its power. When we add its traditional and valuable conservatism, its eminent respectability, and the honor it has put upon education, we see abundant reason for its past success, and ample promise of a still more prosperous future. The honorable part played by Presbyterians in our colonial and Revolutionary history will be fully set forth, and with proper mention, in the addresses at Philadelphia. We are not disposed to insist upon the distinction which might fairly be made between the citizen and the Presbyterian, as regards those records of worthy public services with which the Presbyterian name has been connected, and we confidently anticipate many more great benefits wrought for the republic by the able and upright men who will continue to lend the honor of their names to the most republican of our church polities.

THE TAXATION OF HEAVY VEHICLES.

Among the innovations proposed in the interesting budget which Mr. Goschen has just laid before the British Parliament, is a tax upon carriages. The proposal is that all vehicles weighing over two hundredweight shall pay a wheel tax—five shillings for two-wheeled carts, and ten shillings for those having four wheels—and that vehicles weighing more than half a ton shall pay an additional sum of one pound. There is a certain plausibility in the suggestion that as roads are made for carriages, carriages ought to pay for making and repairing roads, a plausibility that led Adam Smith to advocate strongly the system of turnpikes and tolls. In this view, the charge for the maintenance of roads is properly an expense connected with the business of transportation, and should be paid by those engaged in such business, just as much as the cost of horses and harnesses and stabling should be paid by them. But, from a number of causes, turnpikes have become comparatively rare in modern times, and the collection of revenue at toll-gates will eventually, no doubt, disappear altogether.

The chief of these causes is probably the feeling of the "solidarity" of the interests of the community, which is strengthened by the general acceptance of the economic principle of the tendency of profits to equality. Under the influence of free competition, persons engaged in transportation must be content with the average rate of profit, and it is quite impossible for them to retain for themselves the advantages of any reduction of taxes. Whatever relief of this kind they may experience, they are compelled to share with their customers, and the general public is benefited more in this way than it is injured by assuming the burdens which have been removed from the industry of a particular class. So far, therefore, as roads are used for the transportation of commodities, they are a benefit to every one who consumes anything that is transported over them, and, paradoxical as it may sound, teamsters are in the long run no more interested in good roads than other people. As every one is a consumer of commodities, the maintenance of roads is beyond most other ends properly secured by general taxation.

Since the whole community is thus chargeable with this expense, the question seems to become one simply of economical collection, and there are grave objections to a multiplicity of taxation. In general, the more numerous the taxes, the greater the expense to the community of collecting them and the annoyance to the individual of paying them. Special bureaus must be created and special officers appointed. This is particularly the case where the attempt is made to tax personal property, for as this cannot, like real estate, be easily subjected to lien, it is necessary to enforce such taxation by a system of fines and penalties—remedies which no statesman will resort to if he can obtain his revenue at less expense without them.

The transportation of persons is, under existing circumstances, a somewhat different matter. So far as carriages are used for pleasure, a tax upon them would be a sumptuary tax, and, although vexatious, perhaps as defensible as most taxes of that character. So far as the transportation of persons is a business, it would stand upon the same footing as the transportation of goods, were it not for the unfortunate creation of unregulated monopolies from which we are now suffering. The difficulty of competition enables many horse-car lines to make more than the average rate of profit, and since they cannot be directly controlled, there is much reason in amercing them indirectly by making them pay a license fee upon every car. But unless it be desirable to discourage people from riding where their business or pleasure calls them, such taxes are only exceptionally defensible.

For these reasons the "wheel-tax," or tax upon all vehicles irrespective of their character, must be regarded as a reactionary measure, but the tax upon heavy wagons has some features peculiar to itself. Such wagons are very destructive to roads, and the damage which they cause increases at a much more rapid rate than their weight. Now, it is perfectly true that roads are made for general traffic, and that the whole community is interested in the cheap transportation of heavy goods as well as light. It is also true that smooth and hard roads are constructed with the result, if not with the intention, of encouraging heavy traffic. But there is a tendency upon the part of cartmen to abuse these advantages and to load their trucks to the utmost limit. There is no particular reason why immense drays, weighing a ton or a ton and a half, should be constructed for the carriage of a number of packages of goods when it is quite possible to divide the load and relieve both the streets and the horses. At all events, the public is more interested in the preservation of its roads than in the encouragement of this method of transportation, and it is justified in imposing a special charge upon those who engage in it. The end might be accomplished by limiting the weight of vehicles but for the fact that vast masses of stone and iron must necessarily be transported through our streets. The interest of the public in such operations, however, is so remote, and the injury to the streets so direct, that a special tax might very properly be imposed upon them.

Under our present system, the improvement of a street pavement acts as a premium

on its destruction. Fifth Avenue might be taken for a street of warehouses and breweries, to judge from the procession of gigantic trucks passing through it, and such moving masses are almost as dangerous to carriages and foot passengers as locomotives. It is probably impossible to close the avenue to such teams; it would be invidious and perhaps unjust to do so. But their number can be largely decreased by imposing a special tax upon them, and it is quite practicable to require a special license to go upon certain streets. While it might not be worth while to introduce a system of licensing carts, yet, as the system already exists, it may very well be made productive of some revenue instead of being, as at present, productive only of vexation.

MICHAEL HEILPRIN.

How great is the loss sustained by American scholarship through the death of Mr. Michael Heilprin on Thursday last, the general public, owing to the man's invincible modesty, cannot know. To this journal and its readers it may fairly be pronounced irreparable, so largely has he contributed during the past twenty years to whatever reputation the *Nation* may have acquired for literary accuracy or breadth of information. His history was extremely interesting and eventful. He was by birth a Polish Jew, the son of a learned and philosophic father, and the descendant of a long line of Jewish scholars. He never went either to school or to college. His extraordinary attainments as a linguist, and especially as a Hebraist, were the result of home study. His family emigrated to Hungary when he was twenty years old, in 1843, in order to escape from Russian oppression, and he at once plunged, with his accustomed ardor, into the study of the language and history and institutions of his adopted country, and shared in the patriotic fever which culminated in the insurrection of 1848. He opened a bookstore in the town of Miskolcz, where he attracted the attention of the local aristocracy, and wrote revolutionary poems which brought him into relations with the Hungarian chiefs, so that when the war broke out, he was at the head of the literary bureau of the Department of the Interior, and enjoyed the acquaintance and esteem of Kossuth.

When the Revolutionary Government was overthrown, he made his escape to Paris, but, finding it difficult to make a living there, went back to Hungary when the vigilance of the Austrian authorities had somewhat relaxed, and opened a school; but the Austrian régime he could not endure, and he resolved to seek his fortune in England or the United States. He went to England in 1856, having thoroughly mastered the language, and there joined Kossuth, who gave him a letter to Mr. Seward; and the advice of William Henry Channing, then in Liverpool, decided him to come to this country. He settled at first in Philadelphia, where for two years he supported himself somewhat precariously by teaching. He removed to New York to become connected with the 'New American Cyclopædia,' which had then reached its third volume. The revision of historical, geographical, and biographical articles was intrusted to him from the start, but he also contributed to the work a large number of original articles in these branches, the most important of which is the one on "Hebrews." This connection lasted until 1863, but was renewed in 1871, when a second edition engaged him till 1876.

Of his truly herculean labors on the successive editions of the Cyclopædia, we can convey but a faint idea. So far as his direct contributions were concerned, they tended to round out the symmetry of the scheme, bringing into their proper place countries and men and incidents hidden from the Western world by unfamiliar tongues. In point of justness and authenticity, they were not outranked by any compiled by the staff of the Cyclopædia. But the greatest service which he rendered was in verifying what seemed doubtful, and in giving consistency to the whole, as if the production of one man. It is safe to say that no other similar work of collaboration published in the English language has ever had this merit in so high a degree—in which, for example, there was a uniform spelling of proper names, a uniform date for the same event, however often mentioned, a uniform system of transcribing words (especially proper names) from foreign languages not using the Roman alphabet. To be ever on the alert for the errors of writers over whom he had no control, to remember what had gone before, to guard against mistakes of pure accident on his own part—to know where to turn for the latest authority, to compare and decide between the authorities themselves, always at odds with one another—to find *time* for all this—was a standing miracle to those who had glimpses behind the scenes.

In 1879 Mr. Heilprin published the first volume of his 'Historical Poetry of the Ancient Hebrews'; the second appeared in the following year; the third he has left behind him unfinished, in manuscript. He was in part prevented from completing it by the weight of the tasks which he assumed in connection with the migration of persecuted Russian Jews to this country. He was especially active in bringing about for them the establishment of agricultural colonies in Oregon, Dakota, Kansas, and New Jersey. These efforts were only partially successful, mainly owing to insufficient financial support.

Mr. Heilprin's connection with the *Nation* began at the very beginning, in 1865. From that time on, quite to his death, its readers had the benefit of his extensive command of all the leading tongues of modern Europe, besides the Latin and Greek classics, the Hebrew, and other Oriental speech. Of the eighteen which he could have enumerated, he acquired the most in early life, but he had taken up the study of Rumanian shortly before his last illness. If he was not equally at home in all, each served him as a tool whenever needed. His use of the English, if not always idiomatic, was scrupulously grammatical, and he was a careful critic of English style. But remarkable as all this was, the most striking of his natural gifts was his power to arrange events in their chronological order, and to carry in his mind, ready for instant production, name, place, date, and circumstance, together with an incredible amount of statistical information. If, however, to remember accurately what he learned, and so much of what he learned, was admirable, the wonder of it was increased by the difficulty of acquiring. For years by far the larger part of his reading was done for him by others. Those who know the difference in time between reading for one's self and being read to, will appreciate the hindrance which weak eyes opposed to the effort to keep up with the literature and the news of the day.

The moral side of this great talent lay first in the singular modesty of its possessor. There was not an atom of intellectual pride or arrogance about him, not a particle of jealousy or envy, nothing but thankfulness for suggestions of improvement in expression or corrections of slips of the memory or of the pen. He never showed the least sensitiveness on account of editorial revision of his contributions to the *Nation*. His love of accuracy partly had its roots in a disciplined mind, but partly it had also a moral significance. He wished to be absolutely just, and the qualifications and allowances he made were the chief drawback to the fluency and effectiveness of his English writings. As he wrote anonymously for the *Nation*, there was the secondary but weighty motive not to let its reputation suffer by any careless or too sweeping statement.

Broader-minded than Kossuth, he never took any pains to conceal his abhorrence of American slavery; and we recall a most elaborate article in the *Tribune*, in 1860, controverting a prominent Jewish rabbi of this city who attempted to prove from the Bible the righteousness of slavery. He shared in the excitement of the civil war, and when it was over and new issues arose, he gave his sympathy without stint to the cause of reform. Upon domestic topics, however, he seldom or never wrote, but he was always eager in expressions of his gratification at being a contributor on other subjects to a journal of whose general aims in home politics he cordially approved, and in whose success he always displayed the keenest interest, and to which he rendered services such as only those who profited by them, as we did, can appreciate. His modesty was so great that he was embarrassed by the faintest meed of praise, and in paying even this feeble tribute to his memory we feel as if we were bestowing on him a fame from which, if living, he would have shrunk.

BRANDES AND HIS DETRACTORS.

WASHINGTON, May 7, 1888.

THE notice taken in No. 1091 of the *Nation* of Dr. Puls's charge of plagiarism against Dr. Georg Brandes prompts me to throw some light on the matter. Dr. Brandes, who has only just entered his forty-seventh year (having been born at Copenhagen February 4, 1842), is the author of some twenty volumes of literary and philosophical criticism, which have earned for him the reputation of being the foremost critic, not only of Denmark, but of the whole Scandinavian North. That this considerable position has been obtained, not by barefaced fraud, but only after serious study and commensurate labor, seems reasonable to a candid mind, and it is well known in Copenhagen that Brandes has not unfrequently pushed his remarkable power of application to such an extent as to threaten serious impairment of his nervous system. His first book was printed in Copenhagen twenty-five years ago, but it was not until 1872 that his literary work was made familiar to German readers through translation. Since that year, however, there have been published in Germany ten distinct works from his pen, together with revised and rewritten editions of three of them, besides numerous contributions to the leading periodicals and to the important daily journals of Germany and Austria. This author, it will be observed, therefore, emerged from the "comparative obscurity of the Danish language" into the searching light of German criticism no less than *sixteen* years ago, and yet it has only now been discovered that he is a "literary plagiarist of the worst sort." It is not credible that Dr. Brandes's various works

could have been widely read and favorably commented upon in Germany during a long term of years, if this allegation had any foundation in truth. But this denunciation is not based upon an examination of his entire German work, nor even upon a critical scrutiny of the very considerable portion of it which deals with German literary history, although the title given to his article by Dr. Puls would demand this, but simply upon a comparison of two translations (one by the author himself) of a single work. The history of these two translations may help to exonerate the author from the charge preferred, and prove an interesting illustration of a certain aspect of the right of literary property.

On November 3, 1871, Dr. Brandes began a series of lectures at the University of Copenhagen, which were published in Denmark under the title: "Hovedströmninger i det 19de Aarhundredes Literatur" (Main Streams in the Literature of the Nineteenth Century). They have since become widely known through translations into various languages. The first volume was issued in 1872, and the second, third, and fourth volumes followed at intervals of one year. They were all translated into German by Dr. Adolf Strodtmann, under an arrangement with the author, and published by F. Duncker of Berlin, the first volume in 1872, the second, under the sub-title: 'Die romantische Schule in Deutschland' (The Romantic School in Germany), in 1873, the third volume in 1874, and the fourth in 1876. During the ten years following the publication of the first volume, Dr. Brandes had, between 1872 and 1876, made annual visits to Berlin of some months' duration each year, while from the autumn of 1877 to the spring of 1883 inclusive, that city was his permanent place of residence. One result was that he acquired a competent and fluent knowledge of the German language. The intervening years had also wrought considerable changes in his views and opinions. Even in 1877 he had issued, in Danish, a new edition of volume i of his work, rewritten and materially altered. When, therefore, he was urged to have the four volumes translated by Strodtmann (who had died meanwhile) reissued, because they were out of print, he objected to any further circulation of that early translation, and made arrangements with Veit & Co. of Leipzig for a new edition of the entire work, to be prepared by himself. Of this the first volume appeared in 1882, while volume v, which had been originally published in Copenhagen that year, appeared in Germany for the first time in 1883, and the second volume, 'Die romantische Schule in Deutschland,' was issued in December, 1886, the general title of the series having been slightly altered to read, "Die Litteratur des 19. Jahrhunderts in ihren Hauptströmungen" (The Literature of the Nineteenth Century in its Chief Currents).

In the meantime a Leipzig bookseller, H. Barsdorf, under pretence of having bought from Brandes's former, bankrupt publisher, Duncker, the right to Strodtmann's translation, reprinted the first four volumes of the work in spite of the author's protest; and, without a vestige of authorization from Brandes, he also published the fifth volume in a translation purporting to have been made by a certain W. Rudow, which latter outrage the author was helpless to prevent, there being no literary-property convention between Germany and Denmark. The publisher then reduced the price of the entire set of five books to considerably less than the price of the three volumes which had been printed of Brandes's own translation, hoping in this way, apparently, to undersell the authorized edition. Veit & Co. thereupon made public the fact that the Strodtmann translation no longer presented the author's convictions, and that it was his desire that the German-reading public should become acquainted with the views which he now entertained, through his own revision of his early work; whereupon Barsdorf (more shrewd than scrupulous) retaliated by bringing suit against Brandes's publishers for an injunction as regards the second volume of the author's edition, upon the ground that it was a partial reproduction, and therefore an infringement, of Dr. Strodtmann's translation, published, it will be remembered, fourteen years previously. This question was submitted to a *Literarischer Sachverständigen-Verein*, or Commission of Literary Experts, appointed by the court, under authority of the copyright law of Germany. This Commission rendered a *Gutachten* (opinion) on March 7, 1887, which the plaintiff hastened to print, with a lengthy introduction of his own, and to distribute gratis throughout Germany and Denmark.

Want of space will not allow a thorough analysis of this document, which should be classed as a curiosity in the literature of literary property. The method of procedure adopted by the Commission seems to have been a purely mechanical one. Instead of judging Brandes's work from a literary standpoint, the two books are compared for the purpose of tabulating and counting the words and phrases similar in form or meaning; no regard being had to the context, nor any attempt made to discover how the resemblances noted might be explained. By a comparison of the number of pages, the number of lines to the page, and the number of syllables to the line, it is computed that his book contains about one-third more matter. But this crude way of mathematically determining the amount of original material fails to take into account the omission of parts of the old work, supplied by new text. It is admitted, however, that the excess (which consists of new matter scattered throughout the book) amounts to 135 pages—that is to say, an addition of more than half as many pages as the Strodtmann volume contained. But the Commission declare that these "do not at all come into question"; a remarkable statement, when the very question before them was whether Brandes's book was an original work or a copy of another, and when, moreover, it was known to them that his desire to incorporate this new material was one reason for the publication of the new edition. The Commission decide that some 255 pages of the author's book are *more or less* consonant with Strodtmann's translation, and refer to a "Beilage" where the pages of both books are compared and the proportion of like or unlike parts is pointed out. An examination of this appendix shows that no allowance has been made for the numerous citations from other authors, which the nature of the work (a literary history) demanded. These, if correctly made, would of necessity be alike in both works, and ought, for that reason, to have been excluded from the table. But in cases of incorrect citations by Strodtmann, where Brandes has, after troublesome verification, *corrected* the cited passages, he is scrupulously credited with original labor to the extent of the *number of words* actually altered, and they are carefully counted and deducted from the pages said to have been copied! The conclusion as to the amount of matter copied is qualified also by the admission that the generally similar portions contain "actual or apparent deviations," which are more particularly specified as consisting, (1) of transpositions of sentences or paragraphs, and (2) of alterations of words or phrases. The possible purposes of the transpositions are not inquired into by the Commission, who seem to have had no idea that they could be in any way concerned with the originality of treatment; while the verbal alterations are dealt with in a second "Beilage," which is to the following effect:

"Within that portion of Brandes's work which in Appendix A is noted as being wholly or almost wholly similar to the Strodtmann translation, are found, however, certain deviations. These are partly only the exchange of one word for another, an alien word replaced by one thoroughly German, or one less pregnant by one more forcible; transpositions in behalf of an improvement in the style, or corrections of misprints; or, partly, such as serve to supplement, illustrate, or correct Strodtmann's text, and are, therefore, not merely formal, but of an essential nature. They consist mostly of only one, two, or three words, occasionally of an entire line, sometimes of two or three lines. The essential alterations can, therefore, at the highest, be estimated at but 12 pages, while those merely verbal amount perhaps to 3 pages, or both together to 15 pages, so that the 255 pages of identical text is reduced to 240."

In other words, the careful and laborious correction of errors, both of translation and of citation, the thoughtful weighing of words and phrases in order to improve the expression, the word-for-word, line-for-line examination of the original—which resulted, according to a deposition filed in the court by the defendants, in no less than 770 deviations from Strodtmann's text—are not looked upon and weighed as evidence of such literary labor as would characterize Brandes's translation as an original work, but are adjudged, *after an arithmetical calculation*, to reduce the amount of similarity between the two editions, and, in consequence, the author's alleged plagiarism of the translation of *his own work*, exactly five per cent. A commission of literary experts indeed!

When this document appeared, Dr. Brandes was absent on a visit to Russia; but upon his return to Denmark he printed a reply, dated June 22, 1887, and addressed to his publisher. He explains that when he wrote the original work, he was engaged in active warfare with an intellectual tendency prevailing in Denmark, and that his book was a participation in that strife. "It was a polemical work. I attacked the dead German Romanticists in order to strike, through them, the living Danish Romanticists. I depicted them in order to combat them; and every line was calculated for Denmark and Danish conditions." In the new work, which was intended for a wider field, the relation between Danish and German Romanticism, dwelt upon before, is subordinated, and relegated to an appendix, this being one of the transpositions considered by the Commission as having no import. But the chief difference between the two editions is, that the æsthetical point of view has become changed since the first appeared, in 1873.

"At that time," Brandes says, "I valued in literature, above everything, the intellectual tendency. My conception of freedom and progress was still doctrinaire. My own position of strife rendered impartiality difficult, so that my judgment of the Romanticists was determined by their religious or political attitude, comparatively little being said concerning their talent. This is now entirely changed. By additions, omissions, alterations without end, very often of small extent, but of weighty import, a wholly different poetical, and a new historical, interpretation is presented. The criticism of men like Görres, Novalis, or Brentano is entirely changed. Injustices are removed; fresh studies have placed the historical characters in a new light; every judgment passed is examined anew, and amended wherever it no longer holds good."

Brandes gives several pages of interesting examples, which demonstrate that alterations

which the Procrustean Commission of Experts estimated as so many words or lines altered, really prove serious modification of his contemplation of life and poetry. Furthermore, there is a great difference in the method of presentation in the two editions. "In 1871," he continues, "my whole bias was metaphysical. I looked out over the personalities; they were, for me, only the organs of ideas. . . . Only for the *currents* in the world of thought had I any interest. The individualities were carried along by the flood; they were only the mouthpieces of the ideas." Therefore, in the first volume of his work there was not a single biography; and such as were included in the old edition of the second volume

"are short and incomplete, and—what is most significant—are throughout tacked on at the end as less weighty supplements to the descriptions of the works. First the works are examined; then, when the whole intellectual life of the person is characterized, follows a short biography of the individual in whom all that was depicted had its root. . . . The book does not contain a single portrait. I had not confidence in my skill to paint one. Only long after did I learn that in this direction I possessed a certain strength, and as I no longer nourished an Hegelian contempt for the individual, and no longer believed that the abstract world-spirit produced the works, I began to study the historical personages and to show that their productions resulted from their lives."

It is owing to this that the work is reconstructed, not only by interpolations and transpositions, but by a "series of delicate touches," the effect of which Brandes summarizes in the following words: "The object of the work, which was primarily agitative, became entirely scientific: it *was* Danish, it *is* universal. The conception of poetry and art is radically changed, and, finally, the interpretation of the connection between ideas and personalities has been reversed; to which changes the altered composition responds."

As regards such similarity as may exist in the texts of the two translations, Dr. Brandes justly claims that, owing to the close relationship between Danish and German, it was in many cases impossible to represent the original otherwise than by such literal translation as would be identical. The following passage will demonstrate this at a glance, and it is only one among numerous examples which might be chosen:

"I gamle Dage betragtede man Jeg'et, Sjælen, Personligheden som et Væsen, hvis Egenskaber var dets saakaldte Ævner og Kræfter. Ordet: Ævne og Kraft betyder jo imidlertid kun, at jeg har Muligheden til visse Begivenheder, at se, at læse o. s. v. Mit sande Væsen bestaar ikke af Mulighederne, men af disse Begivenheder selv, af mine virkelige Tilstande."

"In alten Tagen betrachtete man das Ich, die Seele, die Persönlichkeit als ein Wesen dessen Eigenschaften seine sogenannten Fähigkeiten und Kräfte waren. Das Wort: 'Fähigkeit' und 'Kraft' bedeutet aber ja nur, dass die Möglichkeit für gewisse Ereignisse, des Sehens, Lesens u. s. w. in mir vorhanden ist. Mein wahres Wesen besteht nicht aus den Möglichkeiten, sondern aus diesen Ereignissen selbst, aus meinen wirklichen Zuständen."

The two objects which the author had in view were: (1) to reconstruct the Danish work, and (2) to reproduce the result in the best German possible. Working, therefore, with the former translation before him, if it seemed impossible to improve upon the expression used therein (and Strodtmann was a writer of considerable talent), he had either to allow it to remain, or deliberately choose a less suitable rendering. And it should not be forgotten that the construction was originally Brandes's own. As he, with much justice, remarks: "It is not I who have followed the translator, but he who has followed me." And any one at all familiar with Brandes's work, and cognizant of his pride in maintaining the original and brilliant style which has earned him his reputation as a writer, will easily believe his statement, that he has not accepted a single line of Strodtmann's translation until thoughtful consideration has demonstrated its fitness. When Strodtmann wrote: "Aber Capri! Es liegt gleichsam eine rythmische Musik in den Konturen des zackigen Felsens," he failed to convey in German the impression produced by the Danish original, which he nevertheless had closely followed. Brandes produced the desired effect by: "Aber Capri! Wie ein rythmisches Lied steigen und senken sich des Felsens Konturen"—an alteration in the words for which the Commission would give him little or no consideration, but which was evidently the result of careful deliberation. In conclusion, Brandes indignantly exclaims: "Let alone that the laws have a *lacuna* here, every man who has his heart in the right place will concede that it is a serious wrong done to an author when, against his will, his books continue to be published in a form which he no longer recognizes. The books bear *my* name, are sold upon *my* name, and teach things which *I* do not desire to teach. Is it not a shame and an injustice?"

LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND THE BUDGET.

LONDON, April 30, 1888.

THE House of Commons has been mainly occupied since Easter with the Local Government Bill and the Budget. The second reading of the former bill was debated for six nights, a longer time than was expected after the cordial acceptance of its principle expressed by the Opposition leaders when the bill was introduced. The rank and file, however, demanded a full opportunity for criticism, and a discussion long enough to inform the country on a measure of a complicated character, far-reaching in its effects, and yet not calculated without explanation to attract popular attention. The broad complaint of the critics of the bill is, that in spite of the establishment of county councils, elected for the most part on the principle of representation, the most crying evils of the existing system will remain unredressed, and the positive advantages to be aimed at in any reform will not be attained. The surviving historical divisions are the county and the parish. Round these associations cluster and sentiment clings. An Englishman is proud of his county, and thinks of his parish as his home. But between and among these are statutory areas of recent birth: the union, an aggregate of parishes, often regardless of the county boundary, and now the unit of poor-law administration; the highway district; the school-board district; the local board or sanitary district, not universal, but scattered over the county and defined without reference to the parish, the union, or the county. Hence there is a chaos of overlapping areas, multiplied petty authorities, different franchises, and separate rates. That is the great evil. The aim of the local-government reformer has always been to have one franchise and one rate, and not more than two areas of administration, the larger being an aggregate of the smaller.

But, it is said, this bill does not remove any one of these concurrent authorities, with their independent areas, franchises to officials, registration, and rates, but only adds another. It does nothing to simplify the system. It does little to place the business of local government in the hands of representative bodies popularly elected, because it leaves the bulk of it, such as poor-law administration, in the old hands. While it establishes new bodies with a large area of jurisdiction, too large for the laborer to take a share in the business, it does nothing to revive the public life of the parish. Again, fault is found with the tenderness which the justices, the present county authorities, are dealt with. The justices are appointed by the Lord Chancellor on the recommendation of the Lord Lieutenant of the county. They have a very wide and important criminal jurisdiction, which it would be beyond the scope of the bill to interfere with. But their most important function of local government is the management and control of the police. This, instead of being transferred to the new county councils, is only to be shared by them. Then, the constitution of the new councils is objected to. Three-fourths of the members are to be elected, and they select the remainder, in the same way as the aldermen in the municipal councils, an alteration introduced into the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835 in the House of Lords on the motion of Lord Lyndhurst. The effect of this is to enable a bare majority, if the council is divided into two parties, to transform themselves into an overwhelming majority, by nominating all the selected members. Still further, the licensing clauses are extremely unpalatable to the majority of the Liberal party, inasmuch as they are said for the first time to give statutory recognition to a vested right in the holders of annual licenses, entitling them to compensation if the licenses are not renewed.

Here is a large bundle of objections, each full of importance, and the number might be increased. It is not wonderful that meetings of the Liberal party were held to press for a full opportunity for discussion. Two meetings were held in the House of Commons and the National Liberal Club. They were fastened upon as signs of mutiny in the Gladstonian ranks. In truth, they deserve to be mentioned for a different and an opposite reason. They must have reminded old members of old times. It was the first occasion during either the present or the last Parliament that a subject of great moment not relating to Ireland had engaged the attention of the whole party. The Irish members were not present, and the painful kind of unanimity which the Irish policy of the Government produces on the opposite benches did not prevail. There was that identity of sentiment and difference of opinion (though the differences were not great) which are said to produce harmony in conversation—and I do not think that if a supporter of the Government had been present, he would have derived much encouragement from the proceedings.

While, however, the discussion on the second reading has been eminently useful and instructive to the country, it is no less certain that Mr. Gladstone did well in taking the first opportunity of giving an ungrudging approval to the principle of the bill. It is a radical bill with all its shortcomings. It does, indeed, fall very far short of the complete reconstruction of local government which it is sometimes represented to accomplish. But the establishment of a county council with a popular basis of election introduces a principle which must result in complete and radical reform. The importance of the new elective bodies will steadily increase, and they will inevitably draw all the administrative business to themselves.

On the bearing of the Local-Government Bill upon Irish politics I shall have a word to say presently. The other business which has chiefly occupied the House has been the Budget

Bill, which is this year a measure of much more than usual importance. Finding himself in possession of a handsome surplus, Mr. Goschen has rightly embraced the opportunity of effecting a long-projected reform. Local rates admittedly fall too exclusively on real property. As a palliation to this inequality, grants in aid of certain local rates have been made from the Imperial Treasury, a system which led to extravagance and was universally condemned. The budget proposes to hand over to the local authorities a large slice of imperial taxation falling on personal property. The relief is devised on so liberal a plan as to silence the opposition to the encroachment by the county councils on the administration of the justices, while the acquiescence of the general taxpayers in the whole scheme is conciliated by the remission of a penny on the income tax. To make all this possible, some fancy taxes are laid on, such as the wheel tax and the tax on bottled wines, which are unpopular, but of which I shall not here say more. The most serious grounds of criticism are these:

First, the main source of relief is the Probate Duty, one-half of which is to be handed over to the counties. The standard of distribution is to be the amount of indoor pauperism in each locality. This proposal, it is said, rests on no principle. It does not substitute a county budget, with its local responsibility and inducements to economy, for the present subventions in aid of rates, but continues the evil principle in perhaps an aggravated form.

The second grave objection to the Budget was the subject of Mr. Gladstone's attack on Monday. The death duties payable by land and personalty are very unequal. Speaking roughly, they are three per cent. on the total value of the personalty, as against one per cent. on the life interest in real property. The equalization of these duties was the main feature of Mr. Childers's budget, on which Mr. Gladstone's Government was turned out in 1885. In a budget which professes to redress the inequalities of local taxation between the two descriptions of property, it was natural to look for a settlement of the imperial taxation also, and Mr. Goschen does profess to have made the two equal—partly because half of the probate duty is to be paid to the counties, leaving only one and a half per cent. instead of three—an argument difficult of digestion by the owners of personalty—and partly by raising the succession duty on land by one-half per cent. In an elaborate argument to show that the burdens were now equal, Mr. Goschen in his budget speech took no notice of the fact (and it was a strange omission) that the duties are only levied on the life interest in land, and the instalments are spread over several years. Even the financial authorities in the press which support the Government, are unable to defend his contention that the burden is now equal, and that there is no longer any injustice to redress. The unfairness of the incidence of the tax has never been pointed out with greater force than by Mr. Goschen in a book published in 1871. To a Liberal financier, no principle can be much more sacred than equality of taxation; and if Mr. Goschen is constrained to abandon it now, it is one proof among many that even so moderate a type of Liberal as he was cannot join a Tory ministry without sacrifice of a serious kind.

The discussion on the English Local-Government Bill was opportunely followed last Wednesday by a debate on an Irish County-Government Bill introduced by the Irish Nationalist party. The Government adhered to the position which they have recently avowed, that in the present state of Ireland the reform of local government must be indefinitely postponed: in other words, that the Irish people must kiss the rod and abjure the claim for a measure of self-government before any improvement in local government is conceded. This is consistent with the programme which Lord Salisbury announced more than two years ago, when he prescribed twenty years of resolute government as the cure for the distemper of Ireland. It is not consistent with the expectations held out by the Government on their accession to office, still less with the pledges and professions at the last election of—I think I may say—the great bulk of the Liberal Unionists, as well as of many Conservative candidates. It was a common theme of election placards that the Unionists were the true Home Rulers. That, however, is not the instructive point of the present situation. The dissentient Liberals have so often been placed upon the horns of a dilemma, as they were by Mr. Gladstone in the debate on the death duties, that habit has made the position tolerable if not comfortable. Former professions are easily forgotten by politicians, and they take the chance of their being forgotten by constituents before the next election.

It is true that no single circumstance has occurred, such as an increase in crime, which can give any color to a change of policy. The course of events has been such as must have been clearly foreseen. Yet any development of local institutions in Ireland would, in every local centre, place in a clearer light than ever the national character of the demand for self-government, and would strengthen the organization for obtaining it. Therefore the Government dare not meddle with the subject. Now, the reform of county administration in England will compel more attention than ever to the predicament of Ireland. There those local institutions which, even in an unregenerate shape, are cherished in England as the nursery of political liberty, hardly exist, and their place is supplied by the centralized system of the Castle, which Liberal Unionist leaders have denounced in such powerful and scathing language. The Liberals believe that the contrast will be too much for the stomach of the British nation. If the present system of governing Ireland is proved to mean the denial of all free institutions, they will reject it.

It is a noteworthy fact that this view is already taken by two groups of the supporters of the Government in Parliament. The small knot of members, not all returned by Irish constituencies, who specially represent the views of the Ulster Liberals, regard the reform of local government as a primary and essential object: and some of the most prominent, respectable, and high-principled of the English Unionists have declared not less loudly that reform cannot be, as the Government say, indefinitely postponed. The sagacity of Lord Randolph Churchill has made him the powerful advocate of the same opinion. I do not mean to say that anything has occurred to shake the offensive and defensive alliance of which antagonism to Mr. Gladstone is the bond and principle. But remonstrances, based on strong conviction, in several independent quarters of the Government camp against the indefinite postponement of reform will prove to be a potent dissolvent of the policy of the alliance, if not of the alliance itself. When reform is taken in hand, though it may begin from below and not from above, daylight will be seen, and a settlement of the great question will be brought nearer.

C. D.

SOME THOUGHTS ON FRENCH AFFAIRS.

London, April 30, 1888.

Nothing is further from my intention than to trouble you with anecdotes (probably apocryphal) about Gen. Boulanger's character or career, or with speculations likely to turn out unsound about the success or failure of his schemes. My wish is to bring before the attention of your readers one or two reflections on the state of things in France which are obvious enough in themselves, but which, because they possess rather a permanent than an immediate interest, appear to escape the notice of the able editors and energetic correspondents who guide the opinion of England, and, I suppose, to a certain extent, of America.

One fact about Gen. Boulanger's position is hardly disputed, and is of primary importance. His influence arises not from the notoriety of his talents (for no one really knows the extent of his capacity even as a military commander), nor from any striking service which he has rendered the country (for even his admirers do not ascribe to him services greater than have been rendered to France by other meritorious officers), but from his being the representative of popular dissatisfaction with parliamentary government, or, to borrow an expression from Swiss politics, "representative democracy." The General's popularity means, then, the unpopularity of government by the Chambers. The General's triumph does not necessarily mean the nominal overthrow of the republic; still less does it involve reaction against what Frenchmen consider democratic institutions, but it does mean the subversion of Parliamentary authority—it means the destruction by the French people of representative government as understood in England and America. That this is so can be denied neither by Boulanger's adherents nor by his opponents. It is worth while to reflect for a few minutes on all that this fact involves. It suggests at least three important considerations.

First. The triumph of Boulanger will be the severest blow to the credit of free government which has been dealt to it for years. The third French Republic has certainly not had a brilliant career; it has failed to produce statesmen of marked talent or high character; under Republican administration French finances have, it is said, been thoroughly ill-administered, and the reputation of French public men has been greatly tarnished. At this moment the man who is reputed to be the most capable of Republican statesmen cannot lead the Republicans, because he lacks the weight of character necessary for a leading statesman. Yet when everything is said against the republic which can be urged by the most severe of candid judges, fairness compels the admission that Republicanism has given France more of the substance of self government than France has obtained under any constitution which has existed since 1789. The nation has for seventeen years been "mistress in her own house." Freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of meeting, and the other fundamental rights of freemen have been for the first time in French history a reality. Boulanger's triumph, if it takes place, will show that the mass of Frenchmen value self-government far less than good administration and national prestige; his present popularity is sufficient to prove that thousands of French citizens are prepared to put liberty in peril on the chance of obtaining either improved administration or national glory.

It were in some respects a great relief to all persons who value the success of popular government to believe that the main cause of the

support given to the General is the hope that he will recover Alsace. To rush into a desperate struggle with Germany in order to restore to France Frenchmen who are German subjects against their will, would be, if a folly, yet a kind of generous madness. But any one who has read French papers with care will with difficulty believe that popular desire for "revenge" contributes more than a very subordinate element to the General's influence with the masses. The wish to get rid of government by an assembly is, one may venture to assert with some confidence, the motive which enlists voters in favor of Boulangist candidates. If this be admitted, it follows that the victory of Boulanger will be a blow to the cause of popular government throughout the world.

In England we are accustomed to think that we are unaffected by foreign opinion. In one sense this is true. Englishmen are ill-informed about foreign politics, and do not pay much attention to the speculations of Continental writers. But English beliefs on political matters are greatly affected by the course of events in foreign countries. Whoever is old enough to look back to the state of sentiment prevalent in Great Britain from say 1856 to 1864, will recognize the fact that the course of events in other lands told strongly in favor of Conservatism in England. The revolutionary fiasco in 1848, the predominance of Southern influence throughout the United States, the apparent success of the Confederacy, and the expected dissolution of the Union, created a condition of feeling which would surprise the Conservatives of to-day. My own firm belief is, that had the Confederacy finally established its independence, the whole modern constitutional history of England would have been altered, through the indirect effect of the conviction produced thereby that the greatest experiment in democratic government which the world had witnessed had ended in failure. Nor can I for a moment doubt that the breakdown of Republicanism in France would retard the progress of popular government throughout Europe.

Secondly. The fall of the republic, if the republic be destined to fall, will be in the main due to the cause which, above all others, has in France been fatal to the stability of free institutions. This is, to put the matter shortly, the inability of defeated parties to acquiesce in the expressed will of the nation. To put the same thing in another shape, all parties in France have been, and are, revolutionary parties. In the early stages of the Great Revolution, the Court played into the hands of the Democrats; the King, and, still more, the Queen, intrigued with Jacobins in order to discredit La Fayette; and the same disastrous game has been played in one form or another ever since, by politicians who might call themselves Conservatives, but were, in truth, reactionaries or conspirators. At the present moment France is menaced with a return to despotism. It might have been expected by any man unacquainted with French history that all good citizens would, whatever their political preferences, rally round the republic in order to resist a movement which threatens to destroy the liberties of the country. What really has taken place is, that the party of every pretender is more than half disposed to aid Gen. Boulanger, under the hope that the general confusion produced by the overthrow of the republic may at last turn out for the benefit of some particular claimant, be he a Bonaparte or a Bourbon, to whose success a given faction is devoted. On this matter English opinion is densely stupid. Moderate men ask why the Orleanist Princes should be banished from France. The reply is, that no government can tolerate the presence of pretenders. Great is the power of forgetfulness, and Englishmen have so entirely forgotten their own history that they cannot understand why the French republic acts towards the Princes of the House of Orleans just as the constitutional monarchy of England acted during the last century towards the Stuarts.

Thirdly. The dislike or indifference with which large classes of Frenchmen regard the rule of the Assembly is merely the most striking example of a sentiment which, however much we may condemn it, is becoming prevalent in various countries of Europe, perhaps in almost all of them. The word "Parliamentarianism" is an awkward term enough in itself, and represents a feeling which has hitherto commanded little sympathy among Englishmen. The term, however, is coming into vogue, and its meaning is well understood in Switzerland, in France, in Prussia: it is the word by which Imperialists, Loyalists, or Democrats designate the weak side of government by an elected Assembly, or, in other words, by a Parliament. There was a time when, to all Englishmen, and to all men in every country who longed for freedom from oppression, Parliamentary government seemed to be the name for an ideal constitution which, wherever it existed, insured to those who enjoyed it all the blessings of freedom and of good administration. To-day it is far otherwise. In every country there are thinkers and politicians to whom Parliamentarianism means the rule of an Assembly torn by factions, whose strife is fatal to the existence of good administration, and sacrifices (as is alleged) to the interest of party the welfare, it may be the existence, of the country. What is the basis of these complaints, how far they may or may not be justifiable, how, if at all, they can be met, are questions with which, to-day, I do not concern myself. My object is not to support or attack any particular theory, but to point to an undoubted fact, namely, that the weakness of the French republic is a sign of the dislike which is spreading, even in Democratic countries, to that direct rule of an Assembly which is denounced as Parliamentarianism.

AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

THE AGE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT IN GERMAN LITERATURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "C. H. G." (in your issue of May 10) is mistaken in saying that Lessing's fear has not been realized, that the literary age in which he lived might one day be called the age of Frederick the Great.

Chapter xi of Scherer's 'Geschichte der Deutschen Litteratur' has the title, "Das Zeitalter Friedrichs des Grossen." In the notes at page 755 Scherer quotes Lessing's saying, and adds:

"But this warning does not frighten me at all. In the first place, 'Age of Frederick the Great' is a convenient name for the period from 1740 to 1786. And then there really exists a connection between Frederick's sentiments and policy and German enlightenment, between Frederick's deeds and German literature. Kant's and Goethe's testimony is well known, although such testimony is hardly necessary where the facts speak so plainly. I do not believe a word of the widespread fiction, that the growth of literature among the Germans has been quite other than with other nations: with us, also, high literary development depends upon high political development."

Scherer and those who follow him in this are not "flatterers," as Lessing would have it. They see and declare the truth which Lessing failed to see. ARTHUR H. PALMER.

ADELBERT COLLEGE, CLEVELAND, O., May 12, 1888.

NEWNHAM AND CAMBRIDGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A discussion in regard to the admission of English women to certain examinations and the university degree at Cambridge recently appeared in the *Nation*. In this connection, the following extract from a letter lately received from a Cambridge lady may be of interest:

"In your letter, you ask me to explain why women are not allowed to take the General and Special Examinations. The fact is that a great many rich young men come up to college and do not work hard. They are allowed to take the ordinary General and Special Examinations, which are very easy. They spend a great deal of time in boating, cricket, and games. It has been the custom to allow this state of things to go on, and though many members of the University have tried to put an end to it, as yet they have not succeeded.

"We at Newnham and our friends do not wish our students to take these unsatisfactory examinations, and therefore our students only go in for honors, viz., Triposes. Those who do not wish to go in for honors take the Higher Local Examination, which is much better and more varied than that for the Ordinary Degree. If a better Ordinary Degree were instituted, we should not object to their taking it.

"Many petitions have been sent up this summer asking for degrees for women. It is a very difficult question, for the undergraduates are under very strict rule in their colleges, and there are men proctors to see after them at night, etc. These rules could not be applied to women. Moreover, I do not think we are prepared for a mixed university. What may happen in twenty or fifty years no one can say, but we are not ready for a sudden change yet. It is much better when things come on gradually. The University authorities have been most kind and friendly to us. We seem to have won the regards of many of the best men. Only the other day a very distinguished man in the University, Mr. Coutts Trotter, who was Vice Master of Trinity College, died and left us 2,450 books from his very valuable library. He had been from the beginning of the College one of our chief friends and advisers. He was our Vice-Chairman, and he was always at our meetings and ready to help us. His loss is indeed a great one, and his place can hardly be filled. He also left us £1,500 in money and many valuable physical instruments. It is indeed very touching to receive such gifts, which recall to us so strongly the giver.

"We feel we have won a place in the University. I would rather wait awhile till the members of the University feel they can do more for us—I mean the University in general, all parties and divisions. Such is my feeling, and I hope and trust all will end well. At present our students have certificates from the Vice-Chancellor, but they are not members of the University, and cannot vote or join in the business of the University. They have passed exactly the same examinations as the men. If the authorities find they can grant the B.A. degree without giving the vote to women in University matters, it might perhaps answer. At present, in a certain sense, we belong to the University, and there is a very good feeling towards the Women's Colleges, both among the authorities and the undergraduates."

Very respectfully, A. H.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 17, 1888.

Notes.

CASSELL & Co. are about to issue a new and revised edition of the novels of Mrs. Elizabeth Stoddard, beginning next month with 'Two Men,' to which Mr. E. C. Stedman will furnish a preface.

A fifth edition of Col. H. B. Carrington's 'Battles of the American Revolution,' revised, and with fresh notes, is promised this month by A. S. Barnes & Co.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, announce 'Noble Deeds of Our Fathers, as Told by Soldiers of the Revolution, Gathered around the Old Bell of Independence.'

Prof. Hosmer's 'Sir Harry Vane' is in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., for publication in the fall.

Cupples & Hurd issue directly 'Social Life and Literature Fifty Years Ago'; 'Iona, a Lay of Ancient Greece,' by Payne Erskine; 'The Autobiography of Solomon Maimon,' by Prof. J. Clarke Murray; 'Miss Frances Merley,' a novel by John Elliott Curran; and 'Wit, Wisdom, and Pathos,' from the prose of Heine.

'Trees and Tree-Planting,' by Gen. James S. Brisbin; 'A Guide to the Conduct of Meetings,' by George T. Fish; and 'A Strange Manuscript Found in a Copper Cylinder,' a novel "written many years before the appearance of Mr. Rider Haggard's," are among the current announcements of Harper & Bros.

Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish early next month 'Stubble or Wheat?' an anti-pessimistic story, by S. Bayard Dod.

Macaulay's 'Lays of Ancient Rome' is the latest addition to the pretty "Knickerbocker Nuggets" series of the Messrs. Putnam.

Pessimistic observers of American politics may be recommended to read the preface to the fourth revised edition of Simon Sterne's 'Constitutional History and Political Development of the United States' (Putnams). This work was originally published in 1881, and Mr. Sterne sees progress all along the line, except in the legal-tender decision of the Supreme Court and the labor aberration fostered by Henry George's speculations. The several steps in advance which he enumerates are afterwards dwelt upon in the addenda, where, also, corrections are grouped together. The book is a particularly useful one for the Presidential year. The short section of afterthought on the woman-suffrage question will, we think, seem somewhat superficial to those who watch most closely the drift of public opinion, of which the latest sign is the close division over the proposed equality of the two sexes as delegates to the Methodist General Conference in this city.

'The Ethics of Marriage,' by H. S. Pomeroy, M.D. (Funk & Wagnalls), is a work in good faith on a delicate subject of the utmost importance. The treatment is in unobjectionable taste, and if it still leaves much to be said, and from a different point of view, it is certain to win respect for the author among the thoughtful.

We have, from time to time, noticed the monographs upon coöperation published by the American Economic Association. These have now been collected, with some additions, and are published in a handsome volume under the auspices of the Johns Hopkins University. A tolerably complete summary of the history of coöperative enterprises in the different sections of the country is thus presented, furnishing probably the best mass of statistics available to the student. It is to be observed that the term coöperation is very loosely used, and includes almost every form of joint-stock association—even those employing laborers who have no interest in the stock or share in the profits. If its connotation were narrowed, there would be a saving of space and the matter would be more instructive.

Among the papers of the American Historical Association is one published several years since, but of present interest in connection with the attempt to divert the Federal revenues to the support of State schools. It is entitled 'History and Management of Land Grants for Education in the Northwest Territory,' by George W. Knight (Putnams). If we regard the State as an entity apart from its subjects, nothing could be more shameful than this record. The State of Illinois, for example, has succeeded in disposing of about a million and a half acres of land, for which she has to show a fund of $4,000,000. By an accident some 8,000 acres of land were retained, which are now worth two and a half million dollars. If the lands had been let on long leases instead of being sold, they would now be of fabulous value. But there is much to be said in favor of sustaining schools by taxation, and it is by no means improbable that the apparent loss to the State was more than offset by the gain to individuals. As Mr. Wright suggests, the State is ill qualified for the functions of a landlord. The paper (vol. i, No. 3) is a very thorough piece of work, and is interesting as well as instructive.

The thirteenth volume of the *Century* (November, 1887–April, 1888) comes bound to our table, and, refreshing our memory of its contents from month to month, we turn over the six remarkable papers by Mr. George Kennan on Russian tyranny and political punishment; Mr. Stillman's estimate of Ruskin, Mr. Lowell's of Landor, and Mr. James's of Robert Louis Stevenson; the war papers, with the thrilling story of the Libby tunnel; the Lincoln biography, with its revelations of Seward's ambition to relegate the President to the condition of a British constitutional monarch, and to make himself premier; the English cathedral articles, and many more. Mr. Stockton's "The Dusantes," Mr. Eggleston's "The Graysons," and Mr. Cable's "Au Large" lead the fiction. Nothing is on the whole so striking among the illustrations as the composite photographic portraits presented by Prof. J. W. Stoddard. They—both male and female—must be allowed to be powerful arguments in favor of the higher education.

From the Century Co. we have also the second volume of the sumptuous 'Battles and Leaders of the Civil War,' which embraces some of the most picturesque and momentous events of the great struggle—the capture of New Orleans, Ball's Bluff and the Peninsula Campaign, Stonewall Jackson in the Shenandoah Valley, Pope's defeat and Lee's invasion of Maryland, Iuka and Corinth. Among the illustrations that possess a curious interest is one from a photograph of Gen. O. O. Howard taken just before the battle in which he lost an arm, and showing both members intact; and another of the rude mess of the Orleans princes and suite, likewise from a photograph. Belonging to the class of imaginative illustrations (happily not many in this monumental work) that might have been dispensed with, is the frontispiece "The Despatch Bearer," in which the galloping horse was drawn by the generation that knew not Muybridge.

The *Library Journal* for March-April tells of the present and perhaps permanent abandonment of its purpose to give a list of the private libraries of the country containing one thousand volumes and upwards—of which it estimates there are 100,000. Many returns were made freely, but in some cases even legal objections were interposed. "Several frankly stated that they preferred not to make any public statement of the size of their libraries lest the local assessors should promptly rate up their taxes." Others objected to being made the target of circulars from dealers. "From all over the country we hear of special collections in private hands often better and more full than those in the great libraries, particularly, for instance, in the department of Local History."

According to Mr. Foster's tenth annual report, the Providence Public Library now numbers 87,767 volumes, and ranks eighth in size among those of New England. Some curious tables of circulation for the decade, and for eight years, are given. In the latter period, among "works other than fiction used 125 times and over," Longfellow's poetry stands third on the list (346 times), Lowell's thirty-first (159 times), Scott's thirty-eighth (145 times). "Kenilworth" led all the works of fiction, juvenile included (625 times).

The sale and exchange of public documents effected through the medium of the Interior Department appears, from the annual report of Mr. John G. Ames, Superintendent of Documents, to be proceeding very satisfactorily; yet, for want of power to make requisition on other departments, the Secretary of the Interior is practically shut up to his own. No fewer than 11,953 duplicate copies of the *Congressional Globe* and *Record* have been received from libraries, among which some backwardness in availing themselves of this privilege is remarked by the Superintendent. He recommends as a check on overprinting for distribution by Congressmen an increase in the number of lawful depositories. Complaint is made of the frequent duplicating of titles of the same public document, and of the binding together in unwieldy volumes unconnected documents sufficient each to make a volume in itself.

A memorial portrait of the late Prof. John Norton Pomeroy, the former Dean of the Law Faculty of the University of the City of New York, has been presented to that institution. A pamphlet has been issued containing the address delivered on the occasion by Mr. Chauncey B. Ripley, with biographical and bibliographical data concerning Prof. Pomeroy furnished by his family.

Mr. Charles G. Leland will thankfully receive any contribution towards his forthcoming 'Dictionary of American Colloquial Expressions,' newspaper peculiarities, current jokes on popular topics, fragments of songs used proverbially, etc. Any such matter should be sent to the address 2 White Hart Street, Paternoster Square, London, E. C.

For any one in the habit of seeing several of the daily Paris papers, and of the lighter and more gossiping *revues*, the *Gazette Anecdotique* might not perhaps contain much that was new; but even in that case it would be found that there were few events desirable to remember or refer back to, in the political, literary, or artistic life of the moment, which were not preserved in the pages of this little periodical in a condensed and easily accessible form. Even the vagaries of *mal'brair' général* and his followers are recorded under the proper dates, with quite as much detail as they deserve, side by side with the rise and fall of the successive ministries, and the production of the successive new plays which are the bubbles in this sparkling foam of Parisian journalism.

Brentanos have received the first fascicule of Albert Wolff's '*Figaro*—Salon, 1888,' of which four more are to come. The text thus far is cursory, and avowedly not based on a study of the canvases. The illustrations are of large size and excellent quality, in various "processes" which, a few years ago, would have been beyond the reach of such a publication, and in which Paris still takes the lead.

The second volume of the 'Société de Paris,' by the anonymous Count Paul Vasili, has been issued from the press of the *Nouvelle Revue* (Boston: Schoenhof). Its special title is 'Le Monde politique.' The first volume, 'Le Grand Monde,' appeared last spring.

Plon & Nourrit have just published 'Mabil-

lon et la société de l'abbaye de Saint-Germain-des-Prés à la fin du xviie siècle,' by Prince Emmanuel de Broglie, son of the present Duc de Broglie.

—The spring meeting of the American Oriental Society was held in the library of the American Academy in Boston on Wednesday, May 2, Dr. Andrew P. Peabody in the chair. Among the papers read was one by Prof. Richard Gottheil of Columbia College, on "A Syriac Geographical Chart of the Thirteenth Century," found in an old MS. of the 'Lamp of the Holy Things,' by Gregorious Bar Ebhrāyā, who lived in the second half of the thirteenth century. The chart comprises the whole world as far as it was known to this Eastern ecclesiastic, and is an interesting addition to the history of cartography. Bar Ebhrāyā, following the Arabic geographical writers, divides the whole earth into seven parallels or "climates," but he goes beyond the Arabic charts which we find, for instance, in Kazwini, and attempts to delineate roughly the forms of the different countries. We can see here the effect of contact with Greek learning. Mr. James R. Jewett of Harvard University spoke upon the School of Biblical Archæology which it is proposed to erect at Beirut in Syria, and to found and manage upon the same principles as the Classical School at Athens. Orientalists, archæologists, and theologians are there to become practically acquainted with Palestine and the neighboring countries, to study the habits and languages of the present inhabitants, and, when the opportunity offers, to make archæological and antiquarian researches. Prof. David G. Lyon of Harvard treated of "The Trustworthiness of Assyrian Statements, Figures, and Dates." During the year 1887 two editions were brought out of a tablet dated 490 B. C., containing a synchronous history of Babylon, Assyria, and Elam, down to the year 668. This tablet is likely to shake our faith in the accounts which the Assyrian kings have handed down to us. From his own inscriptions we had been led to believe that during the first years of his reign (about 720 B. C.) the great Sargon II. had defeated Humbanigash of Elam at Dūrilu. The Babylonian chronicle, however, says distinctly that the Elamite carried off the victory, and not Sargon (Tiele, 'Babylonisch-Assyrische Geschichte,' p. 614). In the same manner Sennacherib, in his account of his bloody conflict with Babylon and her allies at Hallulu, not far from the present town of Bagdad (692-1 B. C.) ascribes the victory to his own arms. Our tablet, however, gives the victory to the Elamites. The accounts have been written by different peoples, and it is possible that misrepresentations have been made by both sides. The Society adjourned to meet in the fall either at New Haven or at Philadelphia.

—The Wisconsin Historical Society has just issued the tenth volume of its collections, closing with a fifty-page index of the whole series, which includes about five thousand pages. This last issue shows much elaborate research regarding early exploration and settlement. These are matters of local interest, but one paper is sure to be read everywhere, namely, a monograph of seventy-six pages by the Secretary emeritus, on 'Autograph Collections of the Signers of the Declaration of Independence and of the Constitution.' From this document we learn that only twenty-two sets of autographs of the Declaration signers have been made, and that it is scarcely possible for another to be made. The first of these sets was completed by Dr. Sprague of Albany, and that about 1835, after twenty years' labor. The thought of making it struck him, in 1815, when a nephew of Washington, who had inherited his uncle's papers, allowed Dr. Sprague to take away any originals he pleased in exchange for copies. He thus obtained at once twenty nine separate signatures. The twenty-two sets represent the labors, individual and coöperative, the exchanges, and the lucky accidents, of half a century. Seven of them are now to be found in the State of New York, five in Pennsylvania, three in Massachusetts, two in Georgia, and one each in Connecticut, Rhode Island, Wisconsin, Maryland, and England. All the twenty-two sets save one are more than signatures. They include many autograph letters with signatures of the signers, and the value of the sets is measured by the number of these letters. Classified according to this standard, the set of Dr. Emmet of New York stands highest, having fifty-four letters—that is, letters from all the signers but Morton and Gwinnett. It shows the only Lynch letter that is known to exist. It even contains an autograph document signed by Morton, and the name of Gwinnett affixed to a document. One of the sets has only twenty-five letters, and only six can boast fifty or more. One of these six is in the State Historical Society at Madison, Wisconsin. The set there is the only one anywhere west of the Alleghanies, and the only one owned by any Historical Society, except that of Pennsylvania. Accordingly, it was naturally in the publications of the Wisconsin Society that the niche was found which the signatory monograph was best fitted to fill. Besides the fifty autograph-signed letters, there are in Madison documents signed by four of the signers whose letters are lacking, and an autograph document signed by a fifth. Of Lynch there is only an inlaid cut signature. He is the only one of the fifty-six from whom Madison cannot show something more.

—The monographer to whom Wisconsin really owes its set standing among the foremost six, treats his theme with an affectionate minuteness. He has not much to say of his own endeavors, still baffled, still renewed, for a quarter of a century. But he expatiates on Dr. Emmet, the only man who has accumulated three sets, at an outlay of $25,000, as well as time and pains that would have brought him more than that. He describes one set as having perished at the burning of Columbia. The following anecdote is one of the best illustrations that "our indiscretion sometimes serves us well, when our deep plots do pall": Mr. Tefft, the earliest American autograph collector, calling on a friend and not finding him, walked on his lawn. Picking up a paper that was blown into his path, he saw on it the only signatory autograph which his set then lacked, and sadly lacked—the name Button Gwinnett, the rarest name, save Lynch, of all the immortals. House-cleaning had just taken place there, and this paper was a waif from old documents swept out of a garret. Mr. Durrie's paper also describes thirty-one incomplete sets of Declaration autographs. Several of his pages speak of autographs of signers of the Constitution of the United States. Among the sixteen sets of these thirty-nine names which have been completed as complements to the Declaration series, Madison has one—that is, an original autograph signed letter from each and all of the thirty-nine.

—Mr. Alfred Ainger has at last, after long delay, sent forth in two volumes his collection of 'The Letters of Charles Lamb—Newly Arranged, with Additions' (A. C. Armstrong & Son), thus substantially and satisfactorily completing his admirable edition of Lamb's works. Now that we have these two volumes of correspondence, we do not hesitate to say that Mr. Ainger has given us not only by far the best edition of Lamb, but one of the very best editions yet issued of any of our later classics. He has great sympathy with Lamb, a keen understanding of his character, and a high relish of his humor; he has also excellent taste, untiring industry, a wide knowledge of the period, and ample charity for the shortcomings of his predecessors. The present collection contains all of Lamb's letters hitherto published (except a few trifling and empty notelets) and several series of letters hitherto unpublished, some of which are of great importance and interest. The arrangement is chronological—although at times the dating is tentative. From the year Lamb came of age to his death, the story of his simple career is told in his correspondence. As Mr. Ainger says, there are few incidents in his life "that are not related or referred to in these letters; when read consecutively, and with the help of such supplementary information as can be provided in notes, they form an almost complete biography." In providing these notes Mr. Ainger has been discreetly abundant—there are more than eighty pages of them, properly relegated to the ends of the volumes. There is also an excellent index of nearly forty columns. Second only to the biographical interest of these letters—and Lamb is one of the writers whom we love for themselves even more than for their works—is the fund of criticism herein contained. In Lamb the critical faculty developed very early, and its versatility was as remarkable as its keenness. As Mr. Ainger puts it, "Lamb is our best and wholesomest example of that rare capacity for valuing and enjoying one literary school without at the same time disparaging its opposites"—a capacity especially welcome just now.

—Incidentally, in Mr. Ainger's almost always instructive notes, we get a pleasant glimpse of Edward Fitzgerald, the translator of 'Omar Khayyám.' It was Fitzgerald who sent a poem to Hone which was published in the *Athenæum* with the suggestion that perhaps it was Lamb's, and which Lamb wished he had written. Fitzgerald married the daughter of Lamb's frequent correspondent, Bernard Barton, the Quaker poet, whose memoir he wrote. And it was Fitzgerald who supplied Mr. Ainger with an account of one of the neatest of Lamb's jokes. When Lamb was in Paris in 1822, he saw Talma act *Regulus*, and had the actor to supper in the evening. The humorist and the tragedian got on excellently, although Lamb did not conceal his lack of liking for French tragedy. "I was not very happy to-night," said Talma at last; "you must see me in *Sylla*." "*Incidit in Scyllam*," said Lamb, "*qui vult vitare Charybdim*." "Ah! you are a rogue—a great rogue," said Talma, shaking him cordially by the hand as they parted.

—Readers of the *Nation* will doubtless remember the interesting account by its Paris correspondent about a year ago (No. 1131) of the then newly published journal of the little Princess Hélène Massalska during her school years at the Abbaye-aux-Bois. Lucien Perey has just published the second volume of this 'Histoire d'une grande dame au XVIIIe siècle' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof). The earlier volume contains, besides the Journal, the story of the marriage of the young Princess with Prince Charles de Ligne, and of her life as the Princess Hélène de Ligne for the fourteen years during which this union lasted. It ends, three months after the death of the Prince, with her second marriage to her countryman, the Polish Count Vincent Potocki. The present volume contains her life as

the Countess Hélène Potocka from the beginning of 1793, just after her second marriage took place, until her death in 1815. The story of these years is told partly by means of the correspondence between the Countess Hélène and her husband during their temporary separations, from which a great number of letters are published, and partly, when letters fail, by the narrative of the editor—the materials for which were drawn, as the reader is informed in the preface, not only from public and private collections, but from family papers and traditions and personal communications. The entire honesty as an editor of Lucien Percy (Mlle. Herpin) has been vouched for; still, what she says about her sources of information, and especially concerning the manner in which she has made use of them, would be more satisfactory if it were somewhat less vague. She has, however, made an attractive work from her abundant materials, and no part of the story is more interesting than that contained in the present volume, which is animated from beginning to end by the enduring and ardent affection of the Countess Hélène for the husband who was not always as exclusively devoted to her as she was to him.

—We have received the first number of Brunn's 'Denkmäler Griechischer und Römischer Sculptur,' of which we made mention some weeks ago. At this early stage of the work it is not possible to pass judgment upon it, and we shall content ourselves, for the present at least, with calling the attention of our readers to its character and purposes as they are set forth in the introduction. The editor wishes it distinctly understood that this is not to be a history of the art, but a series of illustrations so complete that they will in themselves embody its history. The text will therefore, we presume, be limited to the absolutely necessary; the first number containing only the Introduction, which has already been extensively circulated as a prospectus. The work will consist of about eighty parts, each containing five plates, and costing five dollars. In other words, the completed work will include some four hundred illustrations of the most representative monuments of the various epochs and schools of Greek and Roman sculpture, and will cost about four hundred dollars. The price alone is an indication of the ambitious character of the undertaking. In these days of good reproductions at low prices, a work like this seems more than ever costly, and we have a right to expect of it the very best that can be done in the way of reproducing the texture, surface, and finish of the subjects, and conveying as far as possible the impression produced by the tone of the material in the original. It is in this respect that experiments in reproductive processes have been especially successful of late years, and nowhere more than in Germany. The 'Antike Denkmäler,' published by the German Archæological Institute, seems to us the highest achievement yet attained by a publication which has to meet both scientific and artistic requirements, and it is by such a standard that the character of the present work will have to be judged. The name of Professor Brunn is the surest guarantee that the selection of subjects will be the most comprehensive and illustrative possible. Photographs are being made expressly for it under the direction of Dr. Leopold Julius, directly from the originals where this is possible, and in other cases from casts. These photographs are reproduced by "phototype," apparently a gelatine process, which gives them a permanent, lustreless black, and are mounted upon boards similar in size and color to Braun's. We regret the amount and size of the lettering introduced under the plates, which has a disturbing and, to our mind, a cheapening effect. The five plates in the first number are of subjects of various epochs in Munich and Athens, and include beautiful illustrations of the Apollo of Tenea and the Barberini Faun. The work is published by Bruckmann of Munich, and Asher & Co. of London are the sole agents for England and America.

RECENT POETRY.

PROBABLY no single volume of poems published in this country, since that of Emerson in 1847, has given a more unexpected sense of wealth and added possessions than Mr. Lowell's 'Heartsease and Rue' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Our poets are now so apt to write with a magazine editor at the elbow; their new volumes are so largely filled with what has already been in print; and it seemed so improbable that Mr. Lowell's diplomatic years should have accumulated in his portfolio many unpublished treasures, that the public has been delighted beyond all anticipation by the final opening. The poems hitherto unseen appear fresher and more finely wrought than the more familiar, and the shortest are usually the best, having a peculiar mellowness of flavor and accuracy of form such as did not always mark Lowell's earlier work. He was, from the first, in Willis's phrase, "the best launched poet of his time"—beginning with no preliminary ordeal of disapproval; and the somewhat profuse and imitative sentimentality of his earliest volume met little but friendly criticism, except from Margaret Fuller, who said that it "sounded no depth." The 'Fable for Critics' shows how bitterly the young poet resented the remark; but he took the hint, and very little of the 'Year's Life' is now preserved in his collected poems. Later, he went through a period when his thoughts outgrew his power of expression, and there was a great deal of crudeness, clumsiness, and mixed metaphor in his poems, reaching its climax in such lines as:

"Where there are woods and un-man stifled places."

Alternating with these were passages of such lyrical wealth as no other American poet has surpassed; and it is delightful to find in this volume the maturing of all promise and the vindication of all hope. His 'Democracy and Other Essays' does not show a greater advance on his previous prose criticism than this volume on all that has preceded it, except the "Commemoration Ode"; it places him unquestionably above all his American contemporaries, save Emerson alone; for, with all Emerson's defiant roughnesses, there is certainly a note sounded in such poems as "The Problem," "The Day's Ration," and "Daughters of Time," which places them, in regard both to thought and execution, at a point inaccessible by Lowell. It is curious to observe, on the other hand, that the humorous verses in this volume show no advance.

Again, as has been intimated, the longest poems are not the best. The "Ode to Agassiz," for instance, opens in the old cumbrous and involved manner; and when it comes to delineation, it shows us not the actual Agassiz, but only one side of the man—his friend's affection, like the proverbial sun-dial, counts only the sunny hours. The other Agassiz is not here, who was wont to deny to Darwin and Asa Gray the very name of scientific men because they favored the doctrine of evolution, though a true picture would give his bluff and vehement stubbornness as well as his kindliness when among admirers. On the other hand, Mr. Lowell cannot be charged with here withholding his own animosities; and he even feels bound to justify himself to Mr. Curtis for some phrases that were resented at the time as pessimistic, but which were all condoned and forgotten after his address on "Democracy." Occasionally, too, there is still a rough phrase that seems caught from the least attractive side of Browning, as in the verse:

> "I have a fancy: how shall I bring it
> Home to all mortals wherever they be?
> Say it or sing it? Show it or wring it?
> Set it in outrun or outdy Mr.
> Merest cowsun with whetsaw it broke free?"
> (P. 146.)

It is a pleasure to turn from this terse but too blunt expression to the exquisite ideality of the following:

"TO A LADY PLAYING ON THE CITHERN.

> "So dreamy-soft the notes, so far away
> They seem to fall, the horns of elfinland
> Blow their faint Hunt's-up from the gold time-gone,
> Or, on a morning of long withered May,
> Larks tinkle unseen o'er Chaldean archers' graves,
> That Homeward crawl from Brocéliande . . . and unto
> My fancy flings her cloak of darkness on,
> To vanish from the dungeon of To-day.
> In happier times and scenes I seem to be,
> And, as her fingers flutter o'er the strings,
> The days return when I was young as she,
> And my fledged thoughts began to feel their wings
> With all Heaven's blue before them. Mystery
> Or Music is it such enchantment sings?" (P. 157.)

Dr. Holmes does not in 'Before the Curfew' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) offer us hoarded treasures, such as Lowell's, for the reporters have followed him up too closely; and the interest with which one turns the leaves of this volume is rather personal than poetical. He has his well-defined place in our literature, over which he himself has no further control; he is enrolled among that class whom Emerson designated as "favorites," holding an individual popularity which excludes all question of greater or less in point of genius. In this volume, as in those which have preceded it, he shows the curious combination of sometimes visibly failing to grasp large themes successfully, while elevating small ones by the lightness of his touch: "Columbia" hardly inspires him, but his after-dinner resources are inexhaustible.

It is interesting to observe that, after some delay, the American medical profession has at length produced its second real poet. The extraordinary versatility of Dr. S. Weir Mitchell has never shown itself in a form more striking than in his new volume, 'A Masque, and Other Poems' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The result is more remarkable than in his novels, about which there is, to our thinking, something a little amateurish; whereas, the best of these poems—and the best are, for a wonder, the longest—would impress one as the work of a man whose whole soul was in poetic art, and who never had looked in any other intellectual direction. The "Masque" itself, with its scene laid in the fifteenth century, is as terse, as objective, as powerful, and proceeds with as stern a tread from the very first line to the very last, as if Browning had written it; and the other dramatic sketches, called "A Medal" and "The Huguenot," are scarcely less strong. Curiously enough, the weak point of the book comes when the author, thus vigorous in his own dramatic power, comes to transfusing the same quality from another writer. In his brief preface, Dr. Mitchell tells us that his poem on Launcelot "is an attempt to render, in blank verse, and as literally as possible, the most dramatic episode in the Arthur of Sir Thomas Malory"; but the rendering, though spirited, can by no means be called literal, phrases and whole lines being introduced, and in one case a passage of six lines being interpolated, beginning "And in the moonlight" (p. 44), and this always to the diluting and weakening of the sense. In the last line but one, in the phrase, "abroad his arms he cast," we should plainly read, "his armor," as in the original, since the word "arms" is ambiguous.

Mr. John James Piatt has made a selection from his poems under the title of 'Idyls and Lyrics of the Ohio Valley' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Like all his volumes, it contains much that is pleasing and little that affords new promise, for the labor that he bestowed in retouching his one remarkable poem, "The Morning Street," only serves to emphasize the fact that he reached his high-water mark thirty years ago. Yet inasmuch as the function of a poet's life may commonly be said to be fulfilled when he achieves one strain that will be remembered, it makes but little difference whether this be done earlier or later in his career. In 'Beyond the Shadow, and Other Poems,' by Stuart Sterne (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), Miss Bloede continues that thoughtful and contemplative strain which has won her many readers. She never writes carelessly or without meaning, and though she never quite attains beyond the shadow, she never belittles the dignity of the shade. One of her strongest passages is where she makes a woman chant the song of her sorrow, and then wake to the greater grief of finding it all a dream, and her life empty of even the tragedy which she had visioned:

"The morning sun was in the room,—I woke—
I knew it was a dream,—I knew my life
Was heavier than the burden of my dream,—
—I had not won, I had not loved nor lost."
(P. 93.)

The reader opens each new book by Louise Imogen Guiney—in this case 'The White Sail, and Other Poems' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.)—in hopes to find that she has learned that art for which Jomelli, the composer, sought the instruction of Martini, "the great art of not being embarrassed by one's own ideas." But the result is always disappointing: she does not gain this art; there is always redundant invention and exuberant thought, but not the master's touch. In such poems as "The Rise of the Tide" and "A Chouan," she shows a genuine dramatic power, and then we come upon lines so defiantly turgid as

"Her father's houndish lords she moved among
From feud and uproar dewily distraught."
(P. 51.)

But inasmuch as she has on her side youth and abundant talent, she may have a career before her. It would be daring to assume as much as this for Mr. William Batchelder Greene, whose waywardness seems as defiant and hopeless in 'Cloudrifts at Twilight' (Putnams) as in his previous pages. There are certainly gleams of light through his cloudrifts, but they show a dreary landscape, after all. It requires great charity to have any hope for the poetic career of one who can print such lines as the following:

"PARIS, THE TON.

"Yea, Paris, thou art France!
Fair senseless *ton*, my senses throb
For thee—thou art so beautiful,
Lord! what a gad is Paris Fair,
Ripe bait for foreign hordes;
You pay your chink and get your chunk,
Well buttered on both sides." (P. 104.)

And so on indefinitely. Yet this is no worse than the equally wayward pages with which a veteran in literature like Mr. George Meredith insults us, in his 'Ballads and Poems' (Boston: Roberts Bros.), as in the following?

"HERNANI.

"Cistercians might crack their sides
With laughter, and exemption get,
At sight of heroes clasping brides,
And hearing—O, the horn! the horn!
The horn of their obstructive debt!

"But quit the stage, that note applies
For sermons cosmopolitan.
Hernani. Have we filched our prize,
Forgetting . . . ? O, the horn! the horn!
The horn of the Old Gentleman!" (P. 69.)

Yet on the very next page he strikes the powerful notes which mark the beginning of 'The Nuptials of Attila," a poem which for pure strength has not been surpassed in this generation, although even this is far too prolonged and discursive:

"Flat as to an eagle's eye
Earth hung under Attila.
Sign for carnage gave he none
In the place of his disdain.
Sun and rain and rain and sun
Cherished men to wax again,
Crawl, and in their manner die.
On his people stood a frost.
Like the charger cut in stone
Rearing stiff, the warrior host
Which had life from him alone
Craved the trumpet's eager note.

O for the time when God did cry,
Eye and have, my Attila!" (P. 70.)

The whole poem has the concentrated and waiting strength of the famous equestrian statue of Colleone; the woman described is even stronger than the men, and is brushed aside at last with a disdainful touch that is stronger than either:

"Of the Queen no more was told
Than of leaf on Danube rolled.
Make the bed for Attila!" (P. 100.)

If thew and sinew were the test, George Meredith might well count as the first of English-writing bards; but even in athletic contests the judges take into consideration the element of grace.

The 'Garden Secrets' of Philip Bourke Marston (Roberts Bros.) has been already praised in these columns, and the series is now printed by itself. It is prefaced by a sketch of the young blind poet by the American lady to whose kind encouragement and friendly offices he was so much indebted, Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton. The biographer has done her work with delicacy and sympathy. Another *carrière manquée* commemorated in a volume of poetry is that of the late David Atwood Wasson ('Poems,' Boston: Lee & Shepard), in whom the world lost a man of rare gifts, so hampered by illness and by various struggles as to give but a glimpse of what he might have been. His poems, as here published, have that kind of charm which Keats attributed to Shakspere's sonnets when he wrote, "They are full of fine things said unintentionally"; and some of his finished poems, as "All's Well," have already found a place among our American classics. There is a flavor of the seventeenth century about this poem, rising to a climax in the perfect closing lines,

"And drowns the dream
In larger stream,
As morning drinks the morning star." (P. 127.)

Mr. Wasson also produced one of the finest among American sonnets in that which begins:

"As unto blowing roses summer dews
Or morning's anthem to the treetop choirs" (p. 78)

—an opening which certainly sustains the phrase just quoted from Keats. But the usual misfortune follows when a posthumous volume of verse is made up; between these fine scintillations occur many pages of mere rhythmic prose, and the over-strong praises of the editor lead the reader on to some disappointment. A more belated and more questionable tribute is in the sumptuous quarto which recalls the fading name and the sad career of Henry William Herbert, once well known as a sporting writer under the name of "Frank Forester." His 'Poems' are now collected (John Wiley & Sons), are printed on separate quarto sheets, and contained in a tasteful portfolio. They are illustrated, too, with engraved portraits of various Earls of Pembroke and Carnarvon, and of "Sidney's sister, Pembroke's mother," with all of whom Mr. Herbert was connected by blood; also, of their various country-seats and of "the Meet of the Meadow-Brook Hunt at Old Westbury, Long Island." Besides all these, there are representations of the author, his wife, his son, and his house; the whole effect being to recall and to deepen the tragedy of a wasted life. Mr. Herbert was, however, a good classical scholar, and the translations in this volume are the best part of the poetry; the rest having rather the flavor of the Willis period.

"A Little Brother of the Rich" has hit the public taste and has been widely circulated, but the "and Other Poems" of E. S. Martin (Mitchell & Miller) are not really enlivening; containing perhaps nothing so good as the condensed wit of the preface—"Inscribed to the editor of the *Sun*, with the somewhat disquieting consciousness that he knows poetry when he sees it." Mr. James Whitcomb Riley also publishes a volume of 'Afterwhiles' (Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Co.), which contains little to solidify his dawning reputation. Perhaps what he really needs is to read the "dialect poems" aloud, and then they would be effective. Yet one cannot well do this for sixty million people, and surely his verses "The Old Man and Jim"—not contained in this volume—needed no such personal administration to be effective and touching. Two other volumes in dialect are 'Poems by the late Irwin Russell' (Century Co.) and 'Befo' de War; Echoes in Negro Dialect,' by A. C. Gordon and Thomas Nelson Page (Scribners). Both of these employ for artistic purposes a mode of speech which "befo' de war" was found far less attractive; and both of them portray the negro of that period as such an infinitely blissful being that the youthful reader of history must wonder why it was ever necessary to convulse the nation by a Fugitive Slave Law in order to keep these happy creatures from running away. But they now afford good literary resources, at any rate, and these materials are here used with a good taste that is conspicuously absent from some of the prose work lately done by Southern women.

Sir Edwin Arnold seems especially unpopular just now—he and his verse—in London. Most of this feeling is doubtless political, as he is thought rather exuberant in his loyalty to the "Empire" for one who used to be classed with Liberals. Part of it may be also due to too profuse production, especially in the Oriental way, of which the public easily grows tired, as Southey and Moore found before him. Yet it is evidently his strongest point, and in his 'Lotus and Jewel' (Roberts Bros.) neither the original poems nor the French translations seem at all equal to what he brings from farthest Ind. The Hindu ballad, especially, he always handles with great vigor, as in "The Rajpût Nurse" (p. 181); but the necklace of pearls which he weaves by way of acrostic for his American wife seems a little labored, as it well might be. Yet the mere enumeration of gems for a hundred pages dazzles the eyes, and it certainly might deserve the name of that "lapidary style" which Charles Lamb claimed for some briefer and livelier effusions of his own. Another English volume, drawn from Italian, not Oriental, sources, is 'The Disciples,' by Harriet Eleanor Hamilton King (London: Kegan Paul; New York: Randolph); a book written, it is said, at the suggestion of Mazzini, and embalming in really simple and noble blank verse the experiences of Garibaldi and some of his fellow-laborers for the redemption of Italy. A peculiarly fine and impressive passage, "The Sermon in the Hospital," by the priest Ugo Bassi, has been reprinted in this country, and reached a wide circulation. In great contrast to this grave, strong book is 'Free Field; Lyrics Chiefly Descriptive,' by R. St. John Tyrwhitt of Christ Church, Oxford (Macmillan). There are here some poems about Palestine, conveying a little of the flavor of Lord Houghton's 'Palm Leaves,' but more feebly; and the rest of the book is trivial. Nor will the fame of Mr. Swinburne be enhanced by 'Locrine,' a

dramatic poem showing some of his resources of rhythm and alliteration, but with no strong grasp of character, and attaining about the grade of Sir Henry Taylor's less successful poems of this kind—'Edwin the Fair,' for instance (Worthington).

England may be regarded as at last avenged for the many tales told of the inability of her sons to take a joke made at their own expense. Mr. Thomas Brower Peacock, author of 'Poems of the Plains and Songs of the Solitudes' (Putnams), whose previous volume was lashed with sharp satire through a column of the *Saturday Review*, here reprints the whole review as an encomium, and his prefatory biographer rejoices in it as a crowning triumph. When the *Saturday Review* says, in its occasionally lively way, that Longfellow and Bryant are too English, and that the American bard should be "a soaring human being," and not be "inspired by the bed-ridden Pierian muses"; when it proceeds to give a few of the more astonishing verses of what it calls "this truly remarkable contemporary epic"; when it compares the author alternately to Homer, N. P. Willis, and Alfred Austin; when it ends by fervently saying: "We have never read any American poetry so exuberantly American," the author accepts it all and reprints the notice with gratitude on an advertising sheet. We can do no less, under such circumstances, than give an example of the chief narrative poem, commemorating a hero now dearer to the English heart, apparently, than even to our own:

"Where Wild Bill fought the dead do swell
To thrice the number elsewhere slain.
He flies, he flashes o'er the plain—
He kills before, behind the same—
Shoots on all sides, true is his aim;
He fires with such rapidity
One stream of fire doth ever flee
Flame from the mouth of his firearms,
For each hand a revolver warms.
His thundering yells incessant rise,
Which tell his foes he them defies;
His long hair snaps and cracks behind,
And lashes the complaining wind;
He bristles like a porcupine
With weapons growling in a line—
An arsenal that spins and flies
Before the watcher's wondering eyes."
(P. 200.)

This is from the "Rhyme of the Border War," and there are a hundred pages of it. The late Matthew Arnold is mentioned in the appendix as one who thought well of the work, and found in it, apparently, those qualities of distinction and interest which he declined to recognize in Emerson and others.

'Lyra Christiana: a Treasury of Sacred Poetry, selected and arranged by H. L. L., author of Hymns from the Land of Luther' (T. Nelson & Sons), is a fairly good selection of devout poems, one for every day in the year. It shows, however, a curious slovenliness in editing, having no alphabetical index of authors, titles, or first lines; giving "Rosetti" for "Rossetti," and making Lord Houghton appear sometimes under his title, and sometimes as "R. Monckton Myles" [Milnes]; while poems of unknown authorship are sometimes credited to "Anon." and again sometimes to "Unbekanntes." In great contrast to this volume is the thorough and admirable execution of Mr. A. H. Bullen's 'More Lyrics from Elizabethan Song-Books' (London: Nimmo), in which that wondrous period of literary history is ransacked once again through the manuscript "Books of Airs" and "Sets of Madrigals" of which the great English libraries are still so full. How cheap seems all the modern London brood of triolets and French measures, compared with the freshness, vigor, and variety of this series of mere gleanings after a harvest which seems destined never to be quite exhausted. To those who wish for one new volume of poetry—one and no more—as a summer companion, we can safely commend this. It may well be called a new volume in every sense, for its freshness, grace, and delicacy make these poems citizens of all countries, like the songs in Shakspere. If, for instance, we had professed to be quoting from Lowell's volume a series of cadences so charming as the following, who could have gainsaid us? Yet it is taken from '*Musica Transalpina*, or the Second Book of Madrigals' (1597):

"So saith my fair and beautiful Lycoris
When now and then she talketh
With me of love:
'Love is a sprite that walketh,
That soars and flies,
And none alive can hold him
Nor touch him nor behold him.'
Yet when her eye she turneth
I spy where he sojourneth:
In her eyes there he flies,
But none can catch him
Till from her lips he fetch him." (P. 98.)

To evoke out of oblivion the name of a poet so fresh and graceful as George Campion may well repay the utmost labor of a loving editor. Nor does our editor give us airy fancies and lyrics of love alone, but such solemn harmonies as this from the MSS. of Christ Church, Oxford:

"Victorious Time, whose winged feet do fly
More swift than eagles in the azure sky,
Haste to thy prey; why art thou tardy now
When all things to thy powerful fate do bow?
O give an end to cares or killing fears,
Shake thy dull sand, unravel these few years
Are yet untold, since nought but discontents
Clouds all our earthly joy with sad laments,
That when thy nimble hours shall cease to be,
We may be crown'd with blest eternity."
(P. 125.)

THE BROTHER OF PRINCE ALBERT.

Aus meinem Leben und aus meiner Zeit. Von Ernst II. Herzog von Sachsen-Coburg-Gotha. Erster Band. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz. 1887. 8vo, pp. x, 616.

THE author of these recollections calls attention to the remarkable paucity of memoirs in German as compared with their abundance in English, and especially in French. He might have added that this paucity becomes still more remarkable when we consider that in almost every other department of literature the Germans easily surpass the two rival nations. Novels constitute, perhaps, the only other notable exception. If German memoirs are relatively rare, the memoirs of monarchs are rarer still, and the present work thus enjoys a double claim to the attention of readers. This claim is reinforced by intrinsic merits, not the least of which is its agreeable style, as far removed as possible from the heavy, involved, and wearisome construction of sentences that makes the writings of most professional literary Germans forbidding and formidable. The Duke writes, not like a professional writer, but like an educated man of the world.

Although his dominions are small, the Duke of Coburg-Gotha has at various times enjoyed much prominence, partly owing to his ardent convictions and energetic character, partly, also, to his family connections with so many of the thrones of Europe. Prince Albert was his brother; among his first cousins may be mentioned Queen Victoria, King Ferdinand of Portugal, and the Duchess of Nemours, and his uncle, Leopold, was King of the Belgians and son-in-law of George IV. and of Louis Philippe. He says that his original intention was to give his recollections a purely personal character, but that in consequence of his uninterrupted interest in German politics his book has become a continuous narrative of the events of his time. The volume now published, however, owes more of its attractiveness to its revelations of the personal character and career of its author than to its historical portions. The latter, extending only to 1850, treat with almost unnecessary fulness of detail of many events which possess but a moderate interest for the world of to-day, spoiled, so to speak, by the great occurrences of the past quarter of a century, and absorbed in a far different class of problems. But many readers who care little or nothing about the humiliations which the irresolute character of Frederick William IV. brought upon Prussia, or who take but a faint interest in the Spanish marriages which helped to bring about the fall of Louis Philippe, or who quite despair of any attempt to understand the mysterious Schleswig-Holstein question, will take pleasure in studying the amiable qualities of Duke Ernst, as displayed in the course of his narrative.

His touching intimate relations with his brother, Prince Albert, lasting without interruption until the death of the latter, are known to English readers from the publications of Queen Victoria. The difference in their ages was but a little more than a year, and they were educated together. Their home life, although they missed a mother's care, was more affectionate than the conventional conception of a princely household would lead one to expect. The Duke lays great stress on the paternal influence under which they grew up. He says that their father was one of those men who, without any pedagogic maxims, but by the sheer force of character, are fittest to exercise influence on young people.

"I never," continues the author, "heard a harsh word from his mouth, or knew him to do an unbecoming act; we looked upon him as a model of excellence, and, although he never addressed a severe word to us, our respect for him, coupled though it was with affection and attachment, bordered on fear. He was never didactic, seldom praised or blamed, but his personal influence was so great that we took greater pains than if we had been praised or blamed. He was very skilful in arousing ambition and self-respect. His greatest pleasure was in having us about him as much as possible. Unconsciously, and with ease, he trained us to love nature and to comprehend the artistic, but his claims upon our attention, sympathy, and rapidity of apprehension were often too great. He never tolerated carelessness in dress or deportment, and in case of transgression punished only with a look, which, however, was so severe as to produce more effect than a long sermon. He allowed no complaints of personal discomfort, or even pain; we were hardened in every possible way."

In other respects the education of the two brothers varied from what was at that time regarded as the only proper way of training princes. They attended the University of Bonn, although it was not the custom of the sons of reigning houses to study at universities. In accordance with the usual practice, they were prepared for the university under private tutors, their curriculum departing in so far from that of the regular secondary schools as to exclude Greek, and to include natural history, physics, and chemistry—branches which, fifty years ago, were not so extensively cultivated as they are now. Although they did not learn Greek, they mastered Latin so thoroughly as to be able to converse in it and to take part in Latin disputations. French and English they learned, not in childhood, as was and is customary among their peers, but in later years. Their bringing up was liberal also in a religious point of view. The Duke says that both he and his brother took their confirmation very seriously, but adds that when Sir Theodore Martin speaks of Prince Albert's "natural piety," it must have been done to conciliate English prejudices, as the expression could not be truthfully applied to either of the brothers. The liberal opinions and practices of the Coburg princes, indeed, caused them to be, in a measure, "boycotted" among the German rulers, especially after their Uncle Leopold had accepted the crown of Belgium at the hands of a revolution.

King Leopold always took a fatherly interest in his two nephews, and much of the book is occupied with his letters and those of Prince Albert. In 1836 the two young men paid a visit to Brussels, this being the first of several journeys which they undertook together. There they associated with all manner and condition of men, not even excepting the dreaded Carbonari, thereby giving great offence to many of the ruling families in the fatherland. Duke Ernst has a sense of humor and a good scent for any oddity of character, and enlivens his pages with anecdotes of the many royal and other distinguished personages with whom he was brought in contact. Some of these stories he only repeats from hearsay, having heard them from his uncle. One relates to a scene between the latter and King Frederick William III. of Prussia, just before the battle of Leipzig. Prince Leopold, who was then serving in the Russian Army, had been sent to the King to get him to give certain instructions. He waited some time, and as the King did not appear or send out any message, he sent in an urgent request for an answer. Thereupon the King came out in very bad humor, declared that many hours ago he had requested the Emperor Alexander to inform him whether he should appear on the battle-field in the Russian or the Prussian uniform, but had received no reply, and was surprised that Prince Leopold had brought none. When the latter ventured to interpose a modest remonstrance, the King burst out in a rage, "I must know, first of all, what uniform I am to wear, for I shall most assuredly not march without trousers."

Another royal anecdote is in regard to King Louis of Bavaria. In 1840 the Duke, in his capacity as an officer in the Saxon Army, was on a visit to the camp at Nuremberg, and spent a fortnight in intercourse with the royal family. One day, after dinner, the King asked him, "How in the world are you going to kill this evening?" The young man admitted, with some embarrassment, that for want of something better to do he was going to visit the monkey theatre. The King seized the idea with childish glee, and said, "I'll go with you," and, in spite of all protests, insisted on going. After the performance, the burgomaster appeared in the barn in the full panoply of office, and made a patriotic speech of welcome to his beloved King, which was received with great applause. Then the King jumped on a bench and called out in a loud voice, "Is that meant for me or for the monkeys?" Of other royalties there is frequent mention. At a grand dinner which the author attended in England, King William IV. slept nearly the whole evening. Louis Philippe was very sympathetic to the young Prince. He was a perfect master of the German language, even speaking the various dialects. He was a man of strong personal feelings, and carried his feelings into politics. He had a great antipathy to Thiers. The latter was very near-sighted, and, on one occasion, while inspecting paintings at Versailles, knocked his nose against an easel, upon which the King called out to him, amid the laughter of the whole company, "That's what happens to people who poke their noses into everything."

Naturally the revolutions of 1848-49 occupy considerable space in this narrative. The Duke himself and his dominions were not directly much affected by the events of those years. He had voluntarily given his subjects a constitutional government some time before the storm appeared on the horizon, and had a reputation for entertaining liberal and patriotic sentiments. His services as commander of the Thuringian contingent in Schleswig-Holstein had gained him popularity, and overtures were even made to him from revolutionary quarters to put himself at the head of a national movement. His account of the way in which, by a timely display of boldness, he quelled a revolt in the neighboring duchy of Altenburg, shows that if the rulers had possessed a little courage, the Revolution would have made even less headway than it did. On the other hand, if the revolutionists had known how much dread they inspired in the breasts of the rulers, they would have followed up their successes more vigorously.

In the dreary years immediately following the Revolution, the Duke was a warm partisan of Prussia as against Austria, and of the theory that Germany had no hope of unity and greatness except under the leadership of Prussia. This view, although now a commonplace, was then a controversial question, and remained so until 1864, when Bismarck cut the Gordian knot of the Schleswig-Holstein problem. Although only thirty-two years old, the Duke in 1850 brought about the congress of sovereigns and presided over it. Its deliberations came to nought, through the lack of determination on the part of the Prussian ruler, but subsequent events have gone far to vindicate the patriotism and clear-sightedness of the Duke.

Many other interesting topics are treated fully in this volume, such as the Spanish marriages, the Greek question, in fact, all the political complications that agitated Europe from 1830 to 1850. The impression the reader gains of the author is that of an enlightened prince who takes a serious view of his responsibilities, and is animated by a warm affection for his larger fatherland. One is tempted to apply to him the lines which Goethe wrote of the Grand Duke of Saxe-Weimar:

"Klein ist unter den Fürsten Germaniens freilich der meine,
Kurz und schmal ist sein Land, mässig nur was er vermag;
Aber so wende nach innen, so wende nach aussen die Kräfte,
Jeder, da wär ein Fest Deutscher mit Deutschen zu sein."

EBERT'S HISTORY OF MEDIÆVAL LITERATURE.

Allgemeine Geschichte der Literatur des Mittelalters im Abendlande. Von Adolf Ebert. Leipzig. 1874–1887. 3 vols., 8vo, pp. xii, 624; viii, 404; viii, 529.

THE history of the Classic Latin during the Middle Ages is one of the most interesting subjects of study, and one almost entirely untouched; histories of Latin literature usually ending with the fall of the Western Empire. Yet what more inspiriting subject of literary study could be found than the mode and extent of the preservation of classic literature during this period, and the influence of individual writers like Virgil, Ovid, and Plautus? Thanks to Comparetti's 'Virgilio nel medio evo,' Bartsch's 'Albrecht von Halberstadt und Ovid im Mittelalter,' and Reinhardstoettner's 'Die klassischen Schriftsteller des Altertums in ihrem Einflusse auf die späteren Litteraturen, I. Bd. Plautus,' we know something about the authors named, but how much remains yet to be done!

The Classic Latin was mainly preserved through tradition (so far as its popular influence was concerned), and for purposes foreign to itself—to train monks to write verse, to supply arguments to combat, etc. After the fall of the Western Empire, however, the literature that flourished until the rise of the national literatures was Latin in form, Christian in spirit, and almost exclusively ecclesiastical in contents. It is on this Christian-Latin literature, itself profoundly influenced by the Classic Latin, that the national literatures exclusively rest; for the elements, German, Oriental, etc., not peculiar to this literature, were obliged to pass through it in order to reach the national literatures. The long duration of this literature, its great volume and varied interest, entitled it to consideration by all students of the modern literatures, but it has been almost entirely neglected by all except those concerned with ecclesiastical history and literature. It is Ebert's glory to have made this field accessible for the first time to all classes of scholars, and to have revealed in a luminous and masterly way its supreme importance and interest as an organic part of European literature.

Those who have had to deal with the Christian-Latin literature of the period of which we are speaking, know how difficult it has been to find a guide through this field. First in order of time are the ecclesiastical biographical dictionaries like Jerome's, which, with additions by various writers in the editions of Miræus and Fabricius, was long a standard work. Then came the similar productions of Cave, Oudin, Du Pin, and Ceillier, in which the historical element gradually increased in importance. What could not be found in these had to be sought in the literary annals of the great monastic orders: Pez and Ziegelbauer for the Benedictines, Quétif and Échard for the Dominicans, Wadding for the Franciscans, Backer for the Jesuits, etc.—works of which it is impossible to speak too highly, but which, besides being scarce, lacked entirely the comparative method.

The magnitude of the task naturally frightened any one from undertaking a history of the whole field; the few attempts in this direction, like Berington's ('The Literary History of the Middle Ages'), being utterly worthless. Indeed, when Ebert began his work, he had but three predecessors worth mentioning, one of them incomplete, and the other two devoted to the Christian-Latin literature of a particular country. We refer to Bähr's 'Die christlichen Dichter und Geschichtschreiber Roms' and 'Die christlich-römische Theologie'; the 'Histoire littéraire de la France,' by the Benedictines (and later by a commission of the Institut de France); and, finally, J. J. Ampère's 'Histoire littéraire de la France avant Charlemagne, sous Charlemagne, et durant les Xe et XIe siècles.' Bähr's work is on the old bibliographical plan, and is now quite antiquated; the Benedictines' 'Histoire littéraire' is a work of very uneven execution; and Ampère's book, while pleasant reading, is somewhat superficial. After all, remarkable as has been the literary productivity of France at all times in her history, and while all branches of Christian-Latin literature were cultivated on her soil, a literary history of France during this period cannot take the place of one of all Europe.

If we have dwelt thus at length on Ebert's predecessors, it has been in order to bring out more clearly the difficulties he had to encounter, and to be able to estimate at its true value his successful performance of a herculean task. Before criticising the results of his labor, it will be well to form a distinct idea of the author's undertaking, for, strangely enough, some critics have entirely failed to see what was the author's goal, although the main title of the work sufficiently declares it. In the preface to the first volume Ebert says distinctly, after defining the Christian-Latin literature of the Middle Ages: "The Christian-Latin literature is here treated, therefore, entirely in regard to the literature of the Middle Ages, and as a part of it. . . . Not as an independent product, nor as an offshoot of the classical literature, but as a forerunner and companion of the national literatures of Europe, is the subject

here treated." And in this consists the originality of the work.

No one was better qualified for his difficult task than was Prof. Ebert, whose profound knowledge of every period of European literature has been attested by a mass of valuable articles and books, and enables him constantly to point out influences which would have escaped another. The general mode of treatment is a compromise between the older biographical method and the modern pragmatic literary history. The authors are treated chronologically one after the other, with an account of their lives and works, and a synthesis of the period to which they belong is given in an introductory essay placed before the divisions of the work. There are inconveniences in this method, and it is to be regretted that the author did not fuse his materials into one narrative. What, however, distinguishes Ebert's history from its predecessors, besides its extraordinary thoroughness and correctness, is an absence of bibliographical baggage, although all necessary references are given, and the completeness with which the works under examination are characterized and analyzed. Too much praise cannot be bestowed upon this feature. Only those who have worked their way with aching brain through the thicket of mediæval theological literature (much of which is entirely uninteresting in itself, but of vital importance for its later influence) can appreciate the endless pains and toil this part of the work must have cost the author. To mention but one example, Augustine's 'Civitas Dei' is analyzed in fourteen pages, in which every point of importance in the twenty-two books is clearly brought out. In other words, Ebert's analyses are sometimes genuine compends of the original, and hence an immense saving to the student.

The reader must not expect to find in Ebert a perfect substitute for the earlier works of Cave, Oudin, Fabricius, etc. It was no part of his plan to give a complete history of Christian-Latin literature in all its branches. His work embraces the practical-moral and ascetic as well as the historical literature, the dogmatic-speculative and polemical only exceptionally. Ebert's original plan was to write a general history of the mediæval literature of Europe. What he has accomplished is the history of Christian-Latin literature from its beginning to Charles the Great (vol. i); the Latin literature from Charles the Great to the death of Charles the Bald, 877 (vol. ii); and the Latin literature from the death of Charles the Bald to the commencement of the eleventh century, together with the beginnings of the national literatures, Anglo-Saxon, German, and French (vol. iii). In other words, he has given the history of that branch of Latin literature, without the classic pale, on which rest the national literatures of Europe, and he has brought his work down to the beginnings of those literatures, except in belated Italy and Spain.

The period which follows is of supreme interest, and no one can be a better guide than Ebert would have been; but it is also true that the means for the study of this period are more plentiful and easier of access, while Ebert has led us through what was a trackless waste. The author has not laid down his pen because he deemed his task accomplished, but because his failing health demanded it. Let us be thankful he was spared to do so much, and not grudge his weary hand its well-earned rest. May his declining years be cheered by a hearty recognition of his monumental work, an honor to his country and a glory to himself; and by the gratitude of the scholars of all lands who shall say, in the affectionate words of Dante—

"Tu duca, tu signore, e tu maestro."

The Orbis Pictus of John Amos Comenius. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 1887.

We welcome this resurrection of the 'Orbis Sensualium Pictus,' which has lain too long in suspended animation. This masterpiece of Comenius, the prince of European educators in the seventeenth century, was the greatest boon ever conferred on the little ones in primary schools. Its author had grasped the idea of object lessons as fully as any modern, and developed it by a picture on every page of his book. Comenius, a Moravian, born in 1592, had no certain dwelling-place, but, by war or persecution, was tossed about all Germany, Poland, Hungary, England, Sweden, and Holland. He was urged by Winthrop to become President of Harvard College. Each change showing him a new significance in words when he came to see the things they denoted, he became impressed with the value of pictorial illustrations, and most of all in our childish plastic era. Hence his book was a natural growth.

It was not, indeed, the earliest picture book. The Egyptian 'Book of the Dead' was equally a picture book. Nor was it even "the first *children's* picture book," according to a phrase which the publisher, quoting from the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' puts on its title-page. Its first issue in 1657 was more than two centuries after the appearance of the 'Biblia Pauperum.' 'The Bible of the Poor' was a kind of catechism in which children learned to read, and that about things and scenes shown on the same page with the letterpress. The 'Biblia' has 200 pictures, the 'Orbis' only 151, and those in size and artistic merit much inferior to what we see in the 'Biblia.' Where, then, is the merit of Comenius, which gave him a swifter and wider popularity than Webster's Spelling-book achieved for him—and that in many lands and languages? His forte lay largely in two things. His scope was not Biblical, but it ranged through all the common things that lie before every child. The house, shop, trades, sports, birds, beasts, furniture, tools, all things now of most interest in a Kindergarten, are depicted. A blackboard is seen on the school-room wall. In the next place, each change of many-colored life thus brought before the eye, which catches in an instant what the ear cannot learn in an hour, is analyzed. A dozen or more of the salient features on every page are marked each with a number, which leads to its name, as in United States ordnance manuals, and that is noted in the margin in two languages—Latin as well as the vernacular. Thus attention is fixed, interest roused and concentrated on definite points, the scholar becomes an active seeker and not a passive recipient. The result is a minimum of teaching, but a maximum of learning, and children become bilingual unawares. This method of teaching Latin rose again among us in the Hamiltonian or interlinear method.

Mr. Bardeen has applied photography to reproducing the woodcuts of 1657 just as they greeted Comenius himself. They are archaic and refreshingly quaint. It is interesting to compare and contrast them with the plates of the first American edition, published in New York in 1810 from the twelfth London edition. These were modified as respects dress, utensils, etc., to suit the time. The same first edition contains three more chapters than the present,—one being on Botany, and another on the Deluge.

In the Cyclopædia of McClintock and Strong six books by Comenius are described, but his greatest work is not mentioned. His death is there printed as 1671. That date may be a misprint for 1671—which is also an error—and should be 1670. Mr. Bardeen's dates, too, are divided against themselves. His cuts are said to be "copies from the first edition of 1658" (p. iv.), but then the work was "published in 1657," as we are told three times over, pp. vi., vii., ix. The latter date is correct.

Three Kingdoms: a Handbook of the Agassiz Association. By Harlan H. Ballard. New York: Writers' Publishing Co. 1888. 12mo, xii. 167 pp., illustrated.

This little book, which has reached its seventh thousand, was prepared to meet the necessities of that excellent organization so widely known under the name of Agassiz. It has an introduction by Prof. Alpheus Hyatt, in which he points out the benefits received and likely to inure to the community from the efforts of the Agassiz Association, and pleads for a permanent endowment to secure its future prosperity. The contents comprise an historical sketch of the Association, rules for organizing new chapters, plans for work and preservation of material, directions for the profitable study of the different branches of natural history and anthropology, instructions in regard to exchanges and as to making reports of work accomplished, and references to books, in all departments of science, which the student may find useful.

The repeated editions of this handbook called for show that it meets many of the needs of the young student of nature, and, doubtless, on the whole much better than any other existing publication. We wish the Association and its handbook continued development, progress, and improvement. There are a few typographical errors which should be corrected, and one portion, the bibliography, can be, and we hope will be, considerably improved in later editions. The assistance of a trained librarian would be most useful here, and there should be a certain amount of judicious and impartial comment on each item of the list, so as to give to those looking for handbooks in special sciences some idea of what each book contains and for what purposes it is suited. There are references to some books in the list which we cannot regard as suited to the needs of the members of such an organization. Others are objectionable as deficient in quality, or sensational rather than scientific in their contents. We do not doubt that the editor has used every endeavor to obtain titles of useful works, and the result shows, among other things, how very deficient in certain directions is our elementary scientific literature. Astronomy, botany, ornithology are well provided for. The lower invertebrates are much less fortunate.

Nothing partaking of the nature of an advertisement, except it be frankly introduced as such, should be permitted in such a handbook; and in future editions the so-called "Chapter xxi" should be headed "advertising," or in some other way more clearly display to the least suspicious and youngest reader its purely commercial character. We venture on these suggestions in the belief that they will be more helpful to the editor and to the Association than the use of the more considerable space we might have justly filled with praises of the many excellent and useful features of their little book.

Vernon's Law in Italy. By R. Seymour Conway. London: Trübner & Co. 1887.

This book deserves mention here for several

reasons. In the first place, we may save from a possible disappointment some book-buyers who expect to find in the work a treatise on Roman or Italian law. In the second place, as the work of an English scholar who rises above the "parlor-philology" of Müller and Sayce, and shows himself familiar with the literature, results, and methods of the most recent investigations in comparative philology, it is a *rara avis in terris*. Thirdly, the book is a most important contribution to the history of the Italic dialects.

Verner is no statesman or law-giver, but a modest Danish philologist, who, in 1875, published in *Kuhn's Zeitschrift* (vol. xxiii) the results of investigations which summarily explained a great residue of so-called "exceptions" to Grimm's law by referring them to the influence of a pro-ethnic system of word-accent. Thus the hitherto inexplicable discord between the *t* of *vater* (Goth. *fadar*) and the *d* of *bruder* (Goth. *brōthar*) was referred to the ancient accentual difference of πατήρ (Sanskr. *pitá*) and φράτωρ (Sanskr. *bhrátā*). On the same principle was explained the apparently arbitrary representation of pro ethnic *s*-, sometimes by *s*, sometimes by *r*. Thus the *r* of *ear* (Lithuan. *ausis*) and the *s* of *nose* (Sanskr. *násā*) both represent a pro-ethnic *s*, but the ancient accent followed in the former case and preceded in the latter. The fact that, in the original inflection of the preterite of strong verbs, the accent was upon the root in the singular, but upon the ending in the plural, explains the difference of consonant in *I was; we were*. German *er war*, like our vulgar "*he wor*," is due to the analogy of the plural.

It is this form of "Verner's law" in its application to the Germanic sibilants that Conway, by a happy inversion of ultramontanism, proclaims as a rule of order for their Italic brethren. It is a well-known phonetic law that *s* between vowels in Latin is changed to *r;* thus: *nefarius* but *nefastus, funeris* but *funestus, gero* but *gestum, virus:* Greek ἰός, etc. Still, a goodly number of exceptions have remained, despite all the juggling and conjuring of the grammarians, as *nasus, miser, asinus, quaeso, vasum, Caesar, casa, caseus, rosa*, etc. In all these, according to Conway, the *s* has been retained on account of the preceding accent.

In order to explain all the cases of change to *r*, he is obliged to assume that the accentuation of the period when rhotacism took place was not entirely the same as that of the classical age. Here his results lack certainty. A portion of the changes to *r* are also caused by the proximity of the vowels *i* and *u;* thus, while *quaéso*, which is used only in the first singular, preserves its *s*, *quaérit, quaérimus*, etc., accept *r* under the phonetic influence of *i*, and *quaerébam, quaerémus*, etc., through the shift of accent. The physiological reason for this influence of *i* and *u* is fully established by a course of proof that forms perhaps the most brilliant and universally serviceable feature of the essay.

The author appears to be unconscious that a suggestion of a solution similar to his own was made by Sophus Bugge in vol. xl of the *Rheinisches Museum* (1885), p. 475; and he takes no notice of an article by Wackernagel in vol. xxix of *Kuhn's Zeitschrift* (1887), pp. 127 seqq., which shows a similar though less far-reaching influence of the accent upon sibilants in Greek. The book is full of fruitful suggestions upon a wide range of subjects more or less directly connected with the principal theme.

Mr. Conway is a former scholar of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. Is it a mere coincidence that another recent English book, Roberts's 'Introduction to Greek Epigraphy' (1887), which shows a like careful use of latest German sources, though not the same fertility of thought and independence of judgment, should come from a fellow and tutor of the same college?

The Seminary Method of Original Study in the Historical Sciences illustrated from Church History. By Frank Hugh Foster, Professor of Church History in the Theological Seminary at Oberlin. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1888. Pp. xi, 129.

TEACHERS and advanced historical students will alike welcome Prof. Foster's lucid and suggestive little book. He has set out to do three things: to show that investigation is valuable to any student and practicable in any large college; to lead students into the best methods; and to show the special necessity for "seminary" training in the education of ministers. He has done all three things well. The first question which would be asked by a college president about a new method of instruction is: Does it help men on in the world? And though Prof. Foster does not discuss the bread-and-butter aspect, he does make it plain that the work of investigation pays; that it pays the world at large, through the knowledge opened up; that it pays the student, through an increase of power. The four chapters in which the author describes the seminary method are studded with suggestions; no one who is trying to learn something about history from the sources could fail to find help in them. The distinction between "guide-books," sources, and other men's work is made especially clear. The principal deficiency seems to be a failure to direct students at the beginning of their work to the primary bibliographical helps, such as Vallée's 'Bibliographie des Bibliographies,' Petzholdt, and the indexes to periodicals. In this, as in the two other parts of the volume, the constant illustration by specific examples adds to the value of the book and makes it useful to persons obliged to work without a teacher. The third part, on the application of the method in theological seminaries, has more than a pedagogic importance. The Church cannot hold educated men save by a fearless application of the principles of historical evidence to its own beginnings and doctrines. To train the clergy in investigation means not only that they will be more powerful and better equipped men, but that they will be able to meet the critic upon his own ground.

For the neatness of type and binding, and for the convenient table of contents and index, the author and publishers deserve the thanks of the reading public.

The Life of Amos A. Lawrence. With Extracts from his Diary and Correspondence. By his son, William Lawrence. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

THE author of this volume has discharged his filial office well. He has told enough, and with sufficient illustrations from journals and correspondence, to give a clear idea of his father's life and character, and we never, for a moment, wish that he had been less explicit in his details or less expansive in his treatment of particular matters. The proportions and the arrangement of the book are excellent, and the photographic illustrations are an admirable addition to the text. No amount of writing could have given so full and pleasant an idea of the house at "Cottage Farm" as the picture of its smothered cosiness. Mr. Lawrence suggests that the record of his father's work and motives may have an interest and inspiration which some may not find in the biographies of greater men. It may well be so, and we could wish that it might be very widely read by business men, especially by those having a great deal of money. But there is a class who need it even more—the labor reformers, for whom all capitalists are selfish knaves. Mr. Lawrence's methods of generosity and public spirit were not unexampled. There are many such as he in the community, and they are doing more to solve "the labor problem" than the Anti-Poverty Association and all the medicine men, more or less famous or infamous, who have each a panacea for our social ills.

Mr. Lawrence was well-born, being the second son of Amos Lawrence, one of the brothers of whose business energy the city of Lawrence, Mass., is the enduring monument, a man of great probity and simplicity and social earnestness. Young Amos was a good boy—even his Harvard rustication being a precautionary measure—but he was not so extremely virtuous that he could not write to his father: "The morality and general observations of your letters, disconnected from the other matters and printed, would make a very instructive volume." As early as his Senior year he developed for himself a scheme of life to which he was entirely true in after years, with the exception of its literary prospect. He meant to be a rich man with a literary and farming attachment. To wealth and farming he attained, but not to the literary part. He would hold his wealth in trust for others' good, as well as for his own enjoyment, and this he always did. One of his least successful business enterprises resulted from his acquaintance with the Rev. Eleazer Williams, of French Dauphin notoriety. The pretender wanted money on his Western lands, and gradually unloaded all of them on Mr. Lawrence, who, finding them very burdensome, did all he could to improve the intellectual and moral condition of the people living on them.

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But all this experience did not make him an Abolitionist, nor even a Republican. It was his house that received Sumner after Brooks's attack, but a Fillmore flag hung over it. In 1860 he was the Union-saving Bell and Everett candidate for Governor of Massachusetts. In February, 1861, he went to Washington, with others, to urge the Crittenden Compromise. Failure awaited him, and he went home and—began to drill his friends and neighbors. The war found in him a vigorous champion. He could hardly be deterred from enlistment. He recruited the battalion of cavalry which was commanded by Col. Charles R. Lowell.

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Verner is no statesman or law-giver, but a modest Danish philologist, who, in 1875, published in *Kuhn's Zeitschrift* (vol. xxiii) the results of investigations which summarily explained a great residue of so-called "exceptions" to Grimm's law by referring them to the influence of a pro-ethnic system of word-accent. Thus the hitherto inexplicable discord between the *t* of *vater* (Goth. *fadar*) and the *d* of *bruder* (Goth. *brōthar*) was referred to the ancient accentual difference of πατήρ (Sanskr. *pitā*) and φράτωρ (Sanskr. *bhrātā*). On the same principle was explained the apparently arbitrary representation of pro-ethnic *s*-, sometimes by *s*, sometimes by *r*. Thus the *r* of *ear* (Lithuan. *ausis*) and the *s* of *nose* (Sanskr. *nāsā*) both represent a pro-ethnic *s*, but the ancient accent followed in the former case and preceded in the latter. The fact that, in the original inflection of the preterite of strong verbs, the accent was upon the root in the singular, but upon the ending in the plural, explains the difference of consonant in *I was; we were*. German *er war*, like our vulgar "*he wor*," is due to the analogy of the plural.

It is this form of "Verner's law" in its application to the Germanic sibilants that Conway, by a happy inversion of ultramontanism, proclaims as a rule of order for their Italic brethren. It is a well-known phonetic law that *s* between vowels in Latin is changed to *r;* thus: *nefarius* but *nefastus*, *funeris* but *funestus*, *gero* but *gestum*, *virus:* Greek ἰός, etc. Still, a goodly number of exceptions have remained, despite all the juggling and conjuring of the grammarians, as *nasus*, *miser*, *asinus*, *quaeso*, *vasum*, *Caesar*, *casa*, *caseus*, *rosa*, etc. In all these, according to Conway, the *s* has been retained on account of the preceding accent.

In order to explain all the cases of change to *r*, he is obliged to assume that the accentuation of the period when rhotacism took place was not entirely the same as that of the classical age. Here his results lack certainty. A portion of the changes to *r* are also caused by the proximity of the vowels *i* and *u;* thus, while *quaéso*, which is used only in the first singular, preserves its *s*, *quaérit*, *quaérimus*, etc., accept *r* under the phonetic influence of *i*, and *quaerébam*, *quaerémus*, etc., through the shift of accent. The physiological reason for this influence of *i* and *u* is fully established by a course of proof that forms perhaps the most brilliant and universally serviceable feature of the essay.

The author appears to be unconscious that a suggestion of a solution similar to his own was made by Sophus Bugge in vol. xl of the *Rheinisches Museum* (1885), p. 475; and he takes no notice of an article by Wackernagel in vol. xxix of *Kuhn's Zeitschrift* (1887), pp. 127 seqq., which shows a similar though less far-reaching influence of the accent upon sibilants in Greek. The book is full of fruitful suggestions upon a wide range of subjects more or less directly connected with the principal theme.

Mr. Conway is a former scholar of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. Is it a mere coincidence that another recent English book, Roberts's 'Introduction to Greek Epigraphy' (1887), which shows a like careful use of latest German sources, though not the same fertility of thought and independence of judgment, should come from a fellow and tutor of the same college?

The Seminary Method of Original Study in the Historical Sciences illustrated from Church History. By Frank Hugh Foster, Professor of Church History in the Theological Seminary at Oberlin. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1888. Pp. xi, 129.

TEACHERS and advanced historical students will alike welcome Prof. Foster's lucid and suggestive little book. He has set out to do three things: to show that investigation is valuable to any student and practicable in any large college; to lead students into the best methods; and to show the special necessity for "seminary" training in the education of ministers. He has done all three things well. The first question which would be asked by a college president about a new method of instruction is: Does it help men on in the world? And though Prof. Foster does not discuss the bread-and-butter aspect, he does make it plain that the work of investigation pays; that it pays the world at large, through the knowledge opened up; that it pays the student, through an increase of power. The four chapters in which the author describes the seminary method are studded with suggestions; no one who is trying to learn something about history from the sources could fail to find help in them. The distinction between "guide-books," sources, and other men's work is made especially clear. The principal deficiency seems to be a failure to direct students at the beginning of their work to the primary bibliographical helps, such as Vallée's 'Bibliographie des Bibliographies,' Petzholdt, and the indexes to periodicals. In this, as in the two other parts of the volume, the constant illustration by specific examples adds to the value of the book and makes it useful to persons obliged to work without a teacher. The third part, on the application of the method in theological seminaries, has more than a pedagogic importance. The Church cannot hold educated men save by a fearless application of the principles of historical evidence to its own beginnings and doctrines. To train the clergy in investigation means not only that they will be more powerful and better equipped men, but that they will be able to meet the critic upon his own ground.

For the neatness of type and binding, and for the convenient table of contents and index, the author and publishers deserve the thanks of the reading public.

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